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ABSTRACT

This report uses tables, graphs, and text to summarize 1996-97 data on key indicators of progress by minority groups in American higher education. Data sources included Census Bureau Current Population Reports, the Higher Education General Information and Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System survey reports, and surveys conducted by the Higher Education Research Institute. After an introduction and executive summary, individual chapters analyze the available data by minority group, which always includes African Americans and Hispanics and often also includes Asian Americans and American Indians. Individual chapters cover: (1) high school completion rates, (2) college participation rates, (3) educational attainment, (4) college enrollment trends, (5) degrees conferred, (6) doctoral degrees, (7) college graduation rates, and (8) employment trends. An additional section describes some innovative partnerships between universities and local public school systems that are increasing minority participation and success in college. A special focus on Asian Pacific Americans' demographic and educational trends challenges the "model minority" stereotype and discusses important differences in the educational, social, and economic circumstances of Asian Pacific American ethnic groups. (Contains 114 reference notes.) (DB)

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Minorities in Higher Education

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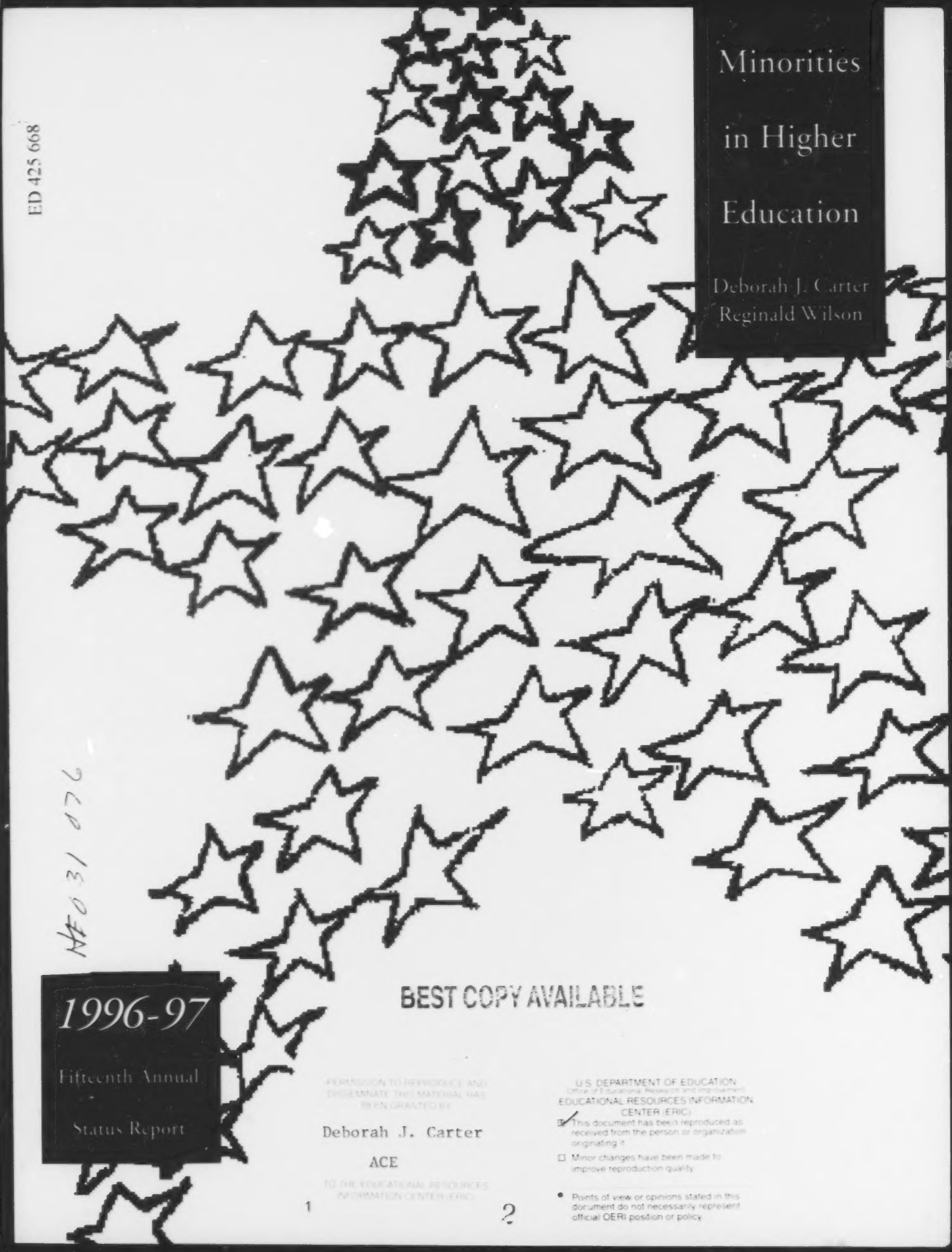

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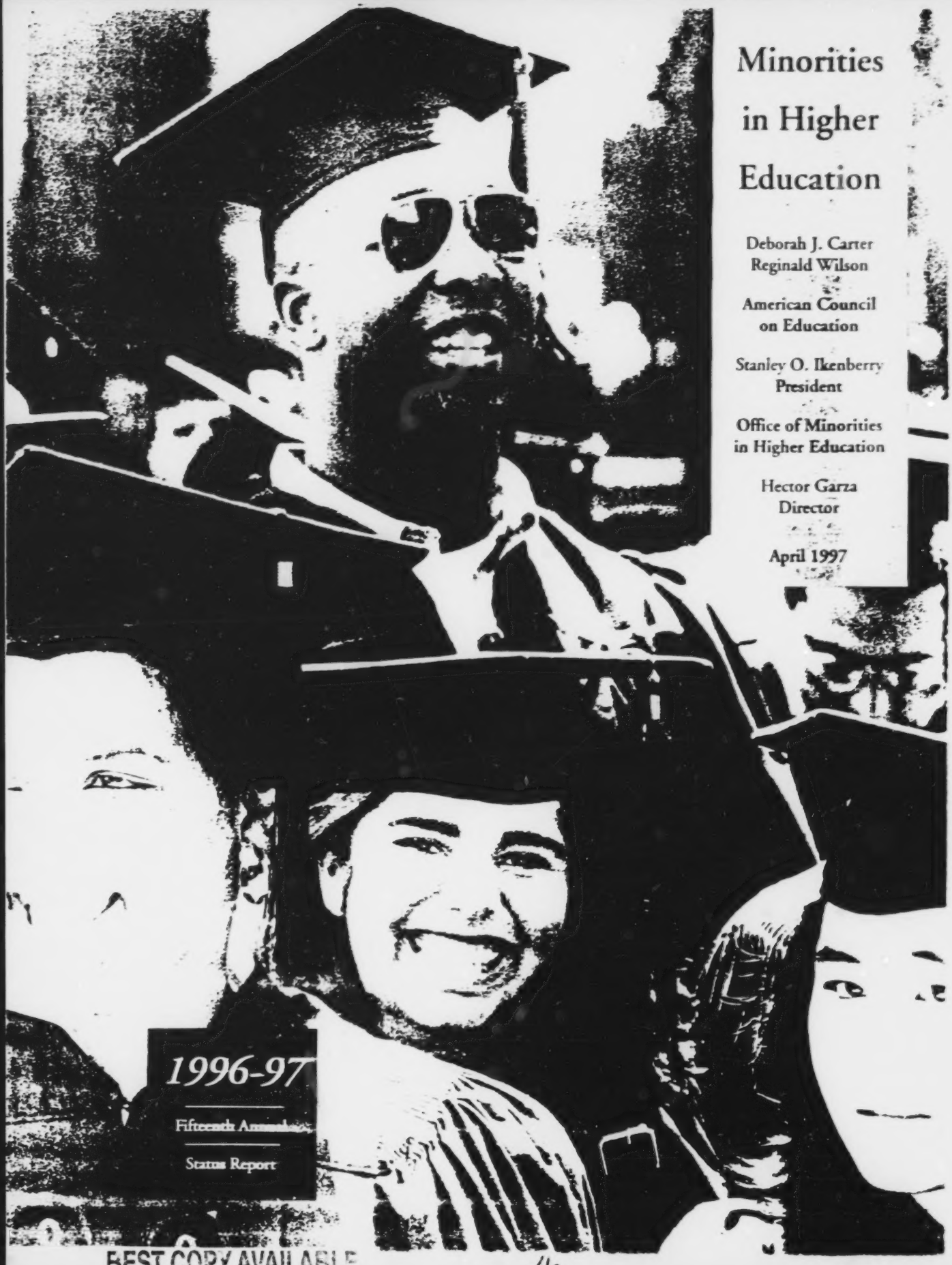

Minorities in Higher Education

Deborah J. Carter
Reginald Wilson

American Council on Education

Stanley O. Ikenberry
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April 1997

1996-97

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Status Report

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Acknowledgments

The Office of Minorities in Higher Education of the American Council on Education (ACE) is pleased to issue this *Fifteenth Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education.* We wish to acknowledge the outstanding work of Shirley Hune and Kenyon Chan, the principal authors of the special focus section, as well as Charles Dervarics, a contributor to the trends section of this report. Without the support of Linda Mabrey, Candy Rogers, and Alison Anaya, this report would not have been possible. Special thanks also are extended to Michael Ego, San Jose State University; Parker Johnson, Association of American Colleges and Universities; Bob H. Suzuki, California State Polytechnic University–Pomona; Judith S. Toyama, University of Massachusetts; Victor Wong, University of Michigan–Ann Arbor; and Betty Lee Sung, who served as reviewers for our special focus section, and to Linda Knopp, who served as a reviewer for the trends section. Our appreciation goes to Wendy Bresler and Kelly Stern for their editorial support. This report has been produced with the support of a grant from The Coca-Cola Foundation.

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Foreword

Near the dawn of the 21st century, it is evident that our nation's future depends on the existence of a strong, high-quality educational system that provides learning opportunities at every level and throughout life. Such a system cannot be sustained, however, unless it reflects the growing diversity that is one of the great strengths of our society.

For our colleges and universities, academic excellence is not something that is achieved in the abstract; it must be alive, with an open exchange of ideas, opinions, and points of view among students and faculty who bring their unique backgrounds, experiences, and perspectives to this rich learning environment. In a diverse society, and in an increasingly global economy, the inclusion of individuals from different racial, ethnic, socioeconomic, cultural, and regional backgrounds not only enhances and enriches discussion, it is the essential ingredient of a quality education.

This marks the fifteenth year the American Council on Education has published the *Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education*. When we first began, progress toward the goal of equal educational opportunity for all Americans had stalled. Indeed, 15 years ago, college enrollment rates for African American and Hispanic students actually were in decline.

We have made substantial progress since then. Many colleges and universities have expanded minority recruitment efforts. Some campuses have become more welcoming and supportive of diverse student bodies. Retention rates for minority students have improved. The data contained in this report suggest that the national commitment to diversity in higher education is making a difference in the lives of students and in the future of America.

The data also show, however, that much remains to be done. Only a few decades have passed since the nation first undertook to reverse a legacy of hundreds of years of discrimination and inequity. After such a short time, and with our future at stake, it is more important than ever that our colleges and universities reach out to ensure that a quality higher education is available to every American.

We extend our special thanks to The Coca-Cola Foundation for the support it has provided for the publication of this report, and for its substantial commitment to expanded educational opportunity. In this, both the Foundation and The Coca-Cola Company provide a useful model for all.

I hope you find this *Annual Status Report* to be of value, both as a measure of what has been accomplished and as an indication of the challenge that lies ahead.

Stanley O. Ikenberry
President
American Council on Education

Foreword

Throughout the 1990s, The Coca-Cola Foundation has pledged its energy and resources to one driving force: education. Over the last six years, The Coca-Cola Foundation has awarded more than $50 million to some 400 schools, colleges, universities, and associations.

Why is education our focus? And more importantly, what have been the results of our investments?

Education is a powerful force in improving the quality of life in our communities. Education also plays a critical role in creating a diverse "talent bank," a wealth of individuals with varied ideas, resources, and skills. As we approach the next century and find ourselves in a decidedly international marketplace, diversity of talent and thinking is without question a crucial and competitive advantage—for business and for all of us.

On page 37 of this status report, we describe some partnerships between universities and local public school systems that are clearly increasing minority participation and success in college. Support for minority education initiatives is fundamental to the success of today's students. Providing that support will remain a priority of The Coca-Cola Foundation.

While we've reached our initial commitment to education for this decade, much work remains to be done. In response, and on the strength of our global business, The Coca-Cola Company has more than doubled the endowment of the Foundation. That allows us to accelerate our support of innovative education programs that work.

We are proud to continue our support of the American Council on Education and its publication of this report. In fact, we are struck by the similarity of our goals: To improve the quality of life for all citizens through education and to ensure that access to education remains a hallmark of our democratic society.

Ingrid Saunders Jones
Chairperson
The Coca-Cola Foundation

Introduction

This *Fifteenth Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education*, released by the Office of Minorities in Higher Education of the American Council on Education (ACE), summarizes the most recent data available on key indicators of progress in American higher education. The report examines trends in high school completion, rates of college participation, educational achievement, college enrollment, degrees conferred, and trends in higher education employment by race and ethnicity. As with previous editions of this report, the primary data resources include the U.S. Bureau of the Census Current Population Reports and the Higher Education General Information and Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System survey reports of the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) of the U.S. Department of Education. For faculty data, the report relies primarily on surveys produced by the Higher Education Research Institute at the University of California, Los Angeles.

The report does not contain updated information on high school completion and college participation rates of Asian Americans, American Indians, or Alaska Natives because the U.S. Census Bureau does not collect this information on an annual basis. We continue to emphasize the need for such data and recommend that federal and state governments improve their annual data collection efforts to monitor the college-going patterns of all racial and ethnic groups.

State higher education coordinating boards and governing boards also should take steps to ensure annual reporting and collection of racial and ethnic college enrollment and earned degree data by individual institutions. The U.S. Department of Education must make annual estimates for some of these data because of nonreporting or underreporting by individual colleges and universities. However, the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights requires the nation's colleges and universities to report such data.

The special focus section of this status report examines the historical, demographic, and educational trends of one of the fastest growing U.S. populations—Asian Pacific Americans. It challenges the "model minority" stereotype and discusses important differences in the educational, social, and economic circumstances of Asian Pacific American ethnic groups.

Executive Summary

High School Completion

■ African American and Hispanic 18- to 24-year-olds continue to trail whites in high school completion rates, a trend that has lasted for more than two decades. However, 1995 data indicate that both African Americans and Hispanics narrowed this gap.

■ African American, Hispanic, and white females posted high school completion rates above those for their male counterparts in 1995, part of a continuing trend. However, data indicate that both Hispanic and African American men experienced gains and narrowed the gender gap between themselves and their female counterparts.

■ The 1995 data show that 76.9 percent of African Americans ages 18 to 24 completed high school, a rate virtually unchanged from the previous year or from 1990.

■ African American men posted their fourth consecutive increase in their high school completion rate, up nearly 3 percentage points to 75.1 percent, since 1992. However, the rate for African American women declined slightly in 1995. As a result, the gender gap between African American men and women declined from 6.3 percentage points to 3.3 percentage points.

■ High school completion rates for 18- to 24-year-old Hispanics have fluctuated greatly during the past ten years. Nonetheless, Hispanics registered an increase of 2 percentage points during 1995, for a rate of 58.6 percent.

Photo Credit: Madison Area Technical College

■ Hispanic men in this age group recorded a 4 percentage point gain in high school completion for 1995, though this rate has fluctuated greatly during the 1990s. The high school completion rate for Hispanic women was largely unchanged at 59.6 percent in 1995.

■ A decade of steady progress has given African Americans a rate similar to that for whites in terms of the number of 25- to 29-year-olds who have completed high school. Both groups had a 1995 rate near 87 percent. Hispanics continue to trail both groups significantly, however, posting a 1995 rate of only 57.1 percent.

■ The percentage of African American men ages 25 to 29 with four years of high school or more increased in 1995 from 82.9 percent in 1994 to 88.1 percent, the highest rate ever. The completion rate for African American males also exceeded the corresponding rate for white males in 1995. By comparison, the high school completion rate for Hispanic males ages 25 to 29 declined for the third consecutive year.

College Participation and Educational Attainment

■ Nationwide, the number of college-age youths continued to decrease in 1995, primarily because of a decline among whites. Since 1985, the number of college-age youths has decreased by 8.2 percent, with whites showing a decrease of 12.2 percent. By comparison, the African American college-age population increased by 3 percent from 1990 to 1995. The Hispanic college-age population has grown by 62 percent during the past ten years, and by 31 percent since 1990.

Photo Credit: The University of Texas at Dallas

■ College participation rates among all high school graduates ages 18 to 24 remained unchanged in 1995. The rate of 42.4 percent—identical to the 1994 rate—remains the highest ever recorded.

■ African Americans and Hispanics continued to trail whites in 1995 in the rates of college participation for high school graduates ages 18 to 24. The rate for African Americans showed little change, at 35.4 percent, while the Hispanic rate increased by 2 percentage points to 35.3 percent. However, whites recorded their highest college participation rate ever in 1995: 43.1 percent.

■ The college participation rate of African Americans increased by 2.4 percentage points since 1990 and by 9.3 percentage points over the ten years from 1985 to 1995.

■ Both Hispanic men and women contributed to the 2 percentage point increase in Hispanic college participation in 1995. However, a significant gender gap continues to exist between Hispanic male and female high school graduates ages 18 to 24. In 1995, the college participation rate for Hispanic women was 38.4 percent, compared with 32.2 percent for Hispanic men.

■ Nationwide, fewer than one in four adults ages 25 to 29 had completed four or more years of college in 1995. Approximately 26 percent of whites in this age group had completed four or more years of college, compared with 15.3 percent of African Americans. The comparable rate for Hispanics remained in the single digits, at 8.9 percent.

College Enrollment

■ Total college enrollment remained largely unchanged between 1994 and 1995. Two-year institutions reported a slight decline for the year, while enrollment at four-year colleges and universities was fairly stable. Enrollment at independent institutions increased by less than 1 percent in 1995, but enrollment at public colleges and universities was down slightly. Continued enrollment declines among whites caused most of the losses for the year.

■ Enrollment among students of color increased by 2.9 percent in 1995, one of the smallest gains of the 1990s. However, enrollment among students of color has increased by 29.2 percent since 1990 and by 67.7 percent from 1984 to 1995. From 1994 to 1995, Hispanics had the largest gain among the four major ethnic minority groups, with an increase of 4.5 percent.

■ All four major ethnic minority groups experienced enrollment increases at four-year institutions in 1995. African Americans, Hispanics, and Asian Americans also recorded gains at two-year colleges, but the enrollment of American Indians declined slightly.

■ Students of color made their greatest gains in 1995 at the graduate level, where their enrollment increased by 6.1 percent. They experienced the smallest gains at the undergraduate level, where enrollment was up by 2.6 percent.

■ African Americans recorded a 1.7 percent gain in total enrollment in 1995, the smallest increase among the four major ethnic minority groups. However, African American enrollment at four-year colleges has increased each year during the 1990s, with gains of 2.2 percent in 1995 and 17.9 percent since 1990. African Americans also achieved a 1 percent gain at two-year colleges in 1995, the second consecutive increase following a decline in 1993.

■ The 4.6 percent one-year enrollment increase for Hispanics in 1995 continued a period of steady enrollment increases. Hispanic enrollment in college has increased by 39.6 percent since 1990, the largest gain among the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ College enrollment among Asian Americans increased by 3 percent in 1995, contributing to an increase of more than 39 percent since 1990. The number of Asian Americans in higher education more than doubled between 1984 and 1995.

■ American Indians and Alaska Natives achieved some progress in terms of higher education enrollment in 1995, particularly at four-year institutions and professional schools. In 1995, only 131,000 American Indian students were enrolled in higher education.

■ Most students of color (81.5 percent) enrolled in lower-cost public institutions during 1995, compared with 77 percent of white students.

Degrees Conferred

■ Students of color achieved progress in all four degree categories in 1994, led by an 11.1 percent increase in the number of master's degrees earned. The increases for students of color far exceeded those for whites in all categories.

■ Women of color posted greater gains than men of color in all four degree categories during 1994. Minority women recorded double-digit gains for the year

at the associate's, master's, and first-professional degree levels.

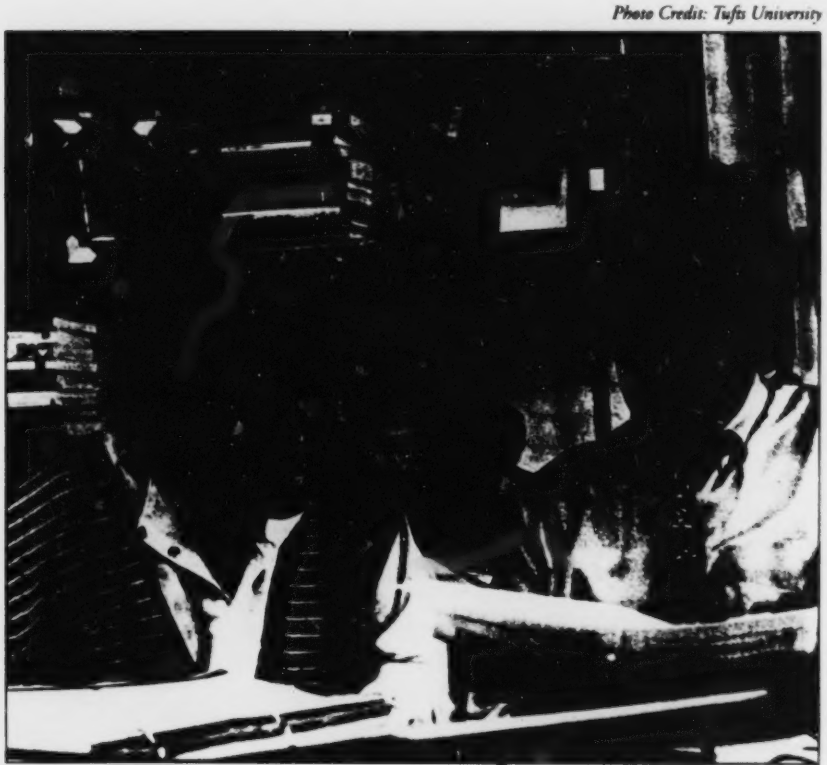
■ African Americans experienced moderate growth in all four degree categories in 1994, ranging from 7.3 percent at the bachelor's level to 10.9 percent at the master's level.

■ African American women posted larger one-year increases than African American men in terms of the numbers of bachelor's, master's, and first-professional degrees earned in 1994. The gains for African American women ranged from 8 percent at the bachelor's level to 12.1 percent at the master's level. The increases for African American men ranged from a low of 6.1 percent at the bachelor's level to a high of 12.1 percent at the associate level.

■ Hispanics experienced a 10.7 percent increase in the number of bachelor's degrees earned in 1994, the largest increase in this category among the four major ethnic minority groups. Hispanics also recorded gains at the associate, master's, and first-professional levels.

■ As was the case for African Americans, Hispanic women outgained Hispanic men in all four degree categories in 1994. Double-digit gains by Hispanic women included an 11.6 percent increase in the number of associate degrees earned, an 11.5 percent increase in the number of bachelor's degrees earned, a 14.7 percent increase in the number of master's degrees earned, and a 10.7 percent increase in the number of first-professional degrees earned in 1994.

Photo Credit: Tufts University



■ Asian Americans made progress in all degree categories from 1993 to 1994, with gains that ranged from a low of 8.2 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees earned to a high of 14.2 percent in the number of first-professional degrees earned. Much of this progress is attributable to Asian American women, who have doubled the number of degrees they have earned in each category since 1985.

■ Despite progress in 1994, American Indians continued to earn less than 1 percent of the degrees conferred in all four major categories. The largest one-year gain for American Indians was 20.6 percent at the master's level. However, American Indians earned only three more first-professional degrees in 1994 than they did the previous year.

■ As a group, students of color continued to earn an increasing number of undergraduate and graduate degrees in all six major fields of study in 1994. Students of color also achieved double-digit gains for the year in the number of education and health profession degrees earned at both the bachelor's and master's levels. However, the greatest gains by students of color were in life sciences at the bachelor's level and health professions at the master's level.

■ African Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians registered double-digit gains in 1994 in the number of education degrees earned at the bachelor's level. Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians each made double-digit gains in the number of education degrees earned at the master's level.

■ The number of doctoral degrees earned by students of color in the U.S. increased by 13.6 percent from 1994 to 1995, con-sistent with steady growth during the past decade. Overall, students of color have recorded gains of 67 percent in the number of doctoral degrees earned during the most recent ten-year period.

College Graduation Rates

■ All four major ethnic minority groups achieved progress in terms of completing postsecondary education from 1990 to 1995 at NCAA Division I institutions. African Americans had the largest increase, with a gain of 9 percentage points during this period, while Asian Americans recorded the smallest gain of 3 percentage points, which was identical to the increase registered by whites.

■ Asian Americans had the highest graduation rate among all ethnic groups in 1995: 65 percent. White students had a graduation rate of 59 percent, while African Americans (40 percent), Hispanics (46 percent), and American Indians (37 percent) trailed these two groups significantly.

■ The 40 percent graduation rate for African Americans in 1995 represents an increase of 2 percentage points from 1994 and 9 percentage points since 1990. Among African American women, 43 percent graduated in 1995. For African American men, the rate was 35 percent.

■ The 46 percent graduation rate for Hispanics in 1995 was up 6 percentage points from 1990. Hispanic women recorded a 49 percent graduation rate in 1995, compared with 43 percent for Hispanic men.

Photo Credit: LaGuardia Community College

■ The 37 percent graduation rate for American Indians at Division I colleges and universities was the lowest among the four major ethnic groups in 1995. This rate was unchanged from the previous year, though American Indians have made gains of 8 percentage points since 1990.

Employment in Higher Education

■ One-third of all full-time undergraduate faculty were full professors in the 1995–96 academic year. Approximately 35 percent of white faculty were full professors, compared with only 23 percent of faculty of color. Minority faculty were most likely to serve at the assistant professor level.

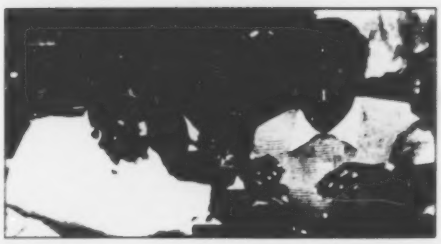
■ More than 41 percent of male faculty members held the rank of full professor in the 1995–1996 academic year, compared with only 17.5 percent of female faculty. Among faculty of color, 28.1 percent of men were full professors, compared with 14.4 percent of women.

■ Tenure rates for undergraduate faculty of color declined from 59.4 percent in 1989–90 to 47.5 percent in 1995–96. Tenure rates for white faculty dropped at a lesser rate, increasing the tenure gap between white faculty and faculty of color.

■ Among men of color, tenure rates fell from 62.7 percent in 1989–90 to 51.3 percent in 1995–96. Among women of color, tenure rates declined from 53.5 percent to 41.4 percent during this period.

■ Among African Americans, nearly two-thirds of full-time faculty served at the associate professor or assistant professor level during the 1995–96 academic year. By comparison, 17.8 percent were full professors. Only 16.9 percent of African American male faculty held the title of full professor in 1995–96, the lowest rate among the four major ethnic minority groups.

Photo Credit: LaGuardia Community College



■ Approximately 40 percent of African American faculty served in the social sciences, English, or education. Social science was the most popular field among African American men, while English was most popular among African American women.

■ Approximately 60 percent of Hispanic faculty served as assistant professors or lecturers during the 1995–96 school year. By comparison, only 18.4 percent were associate professors, and 17.3 percent held the rank of full professor. Hispanic men also were much more likely than Hispanic women to achieve full professor or associate professor status.

■ Chicano and Puerto Rican faculty were much less likely than other Latinos to hold full professor status. In 1995–96, 14.7 percent of Chicanos and 10.9 percent of Puerto Rican faculty served as full professors. The rate for other Latino faculty was 22.5 percent.

■ In 1995–96, 31.1 percent of Asian American faculty served as full professors, the highest rate among the four major ethnic minority groups. Asian American male faculty were twice as likely as Asian American female faculty to hold this rank.

■ Though their faculty numbers remain small, American Indians have made inroads into the professoriate. In 1995–96, 24.6 percent of American Indian faculty served as full professors, a rate second only to Asian Americans among the four major ethnic minority groups. Much of the progress by American Indian faculty was made at tribally controlled colleges.

■ American Indian men were much more likely than American Indian women to attain the position of full professor. In 1995–96, 32.8 percent of American Indian male faculty served as full professors, compared with only 11.5 percent of American Indian female faculty.

SPECIAL FOCUS: ASIAN PACIFIC AMERICAN DEMOGRAPHIC AND EDUCATIONAL TRENDS

■ Asian Pacific Americans (APAs) are a complex and dynamic population made up of diverse Asian and Pacific Islander ethnic groups. Most available data on APAs are aggregated and provide only a partial portrait. Examining disaggregated data uncovers important variability among ethnic groups and helps ensure a more complete assessment of APA educational status and of appropriate policies and programs to meet their needs.

■ APAs have a long history of struggle to gain access to and equal treatment in education in the United States. A number of landmark court cases involving APAs have enhanced the definitions of "equal" and "high-quality" education and "equity in higher education employment" to the benefit of all Americans.

■ The recent and so-called "positive" stereotype of APAs as a "model minority" and a "success story" is inaccurate. It conceals the wide range of APA educational experiences, which includes at-risk students as well as high achievers, and the social costs that students and their families endure in attempting to validate the stereotype. The stereotype of APAs as science and math "nerds" also does not reflect reality. APAs have a wide range of academic interests and are involved in a variety of extracurricular activities.

■ New research challenges cultural explanations of APA educational performance and persistence and gives more attention to socio-historical, structural, and societal influences. APAs invest in education because they view it as a necessary means to achieve social mobility in a racially stratified society that continues to circumscribe their opportunities. Many APAs, however, find racism and other barriers defeating and difficult to overcome.

Demographic Trends

■ U.S. immigration and refugee legislation and America's involvement in wars in Southeast Asia have contributed to significant changes in the size and ethnic composition of the APA population since 1965. The number of APAs doubled from 1970 to 1980, and nearly doubled again from 1980 to 1990. New APA ethnic groups have joined long-established communities and have contributed to the socioeconomic, linguistic, cultural, and political diversity of the population.

■ APAs in the 1990s are predominantly foreign born, speak a language other than English, are concentrated in the West (though they live in all 50 states), and are highly urbanized. Most APA families are larger than the average U.S. family, and they are more likely than whites to live in crowded conditions. APAs' median family income is less than that of whites and more than that of blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians.

■ Educational attainment has not resulted in income parity for APAs, including those with bachelor's degrees or higher. The poverty rate among APAs also far exceeds the rates for the total population and for whites at every educational level.

Photo Credit: Reed College

Educational Trends

■ Overall, APAs have high educational attainment compared to the U.S. population. However, APA educational attainment is uneven, with differences among the ethnic groups and a bimodal education pattern reflective of a socioeconomically bifurcated population. In conjunction with high college completion rates, APAs also have high percentages of persons with an eighth grade or lower education. APA women generally receive less education than their male counterparts. Southeast Asian and Pacific Islander groups are educationally at risk in many aspects.

■ APA high school students have higher expectations of attending and completing college, take more academic courses in preparation for college, and are more likely to persist to college completion than students of other racial/ethnic groups. Their achievements, however, are uneven. APAs with limited English proficiency face barriers in college eligibility and are more likely to attend community college, where they earn a disproportionately high number of nontransferable ESL credits (which extends their years in college).

■ The higher education participation of APAs mirrors, in part, their population growth since 1965. Between 1984 and 1995, APAs were the second–fastest growing racial/ethnic group at the undergraduate and graduate levels (after Hispanics) and the fastest-growing group at the professional school level. While APA women continue to lag behind APA men at every level, their increased enrollment is responsible, in large part, for recent APA gains.

■ APAs are more diverse in their fields of study than the "model minority" image suggests and are found in all disciplines and fields at the bachelor's and master's levels. Business was APAs' major of choice at the B.A. and M.A. levels.

■ APAs are five times more likely to obtain a first-professional degree than a doctorate. They view careers in such fields as medicine, law, and dentistry as offering greater job security, prestige, and remuneration than doctoral studies. APAs' choices of field of study at the doctoral level are becoming more diverse, but they remain concentrated in the sciences and engineering.

■ The APA education pipeline is not free flowing. Impediments exist for some APA groups at the B.A. level, for APA women generally, and for all APAs at the doctoral level. Educationally at-risk groups, such as Southeast Asians and Pacific Islanders, are underrepresented throughout higher education. Gender inequity in society at large, in APA communities, and in the education system contributes to the APA gender gap throughout the pipeline.

■ The numbers of APAs on American campuses tell only part of their story in higher education. APAs say their concerns are ignored by college and university faculty and administrators despite the presence of large numbers of APAs on campuses. They are marginalized in the curriculum, silenced in the classroom, neither identified nor recruited for doctoral programs, and have few APA faculty as mentors. Greater attention needs to be given to the quality of their educational experience.

■ Data on APA faculty often combine information about APAs and Asian foreign nationals who are in the process of becoming permanent U.S. residents and citizens; thus, APA statistics are misrepresented. The percentage of APA faculty did increase over the past decade, but their numbers remain modest.

■ Recruitment and retention of APA faculty and their underrepresentation in higher levels of university administration are major issues for APA higher education employment. The numbers of APA female faculty at all levels remain small compared to their male counterparts, and APA female faculty remain concentrated at the junior ranks. APAs—especially APA women—have a low tenure rate. APAs also encounter a "glass ceiling"; they accounted for less than 1 percent of all chief executive officers in higher education in 1996.

■ APAs seeking administrative posts state that they are not being identified, mentored, or recruited for university management. In addition to racial discrimination, APA faculty and administrators encounter cultural biases in leadership style, accent discrimination and other perceptions of English language deficiency, and, for APA women, sex discrimination and sexual harassment; these all serve as impediments in the APA employment pipeline.

Recommendations

■ *Demythologize APAs as a "model minority."* Strong faculty, administrative, and staff development should be organized on campuses to accomplish this goal and to "de-orientalize" APAs' educational aspirations and choices. APA students and faculty are complex individuals and should not be treated on the basis of stereotypes.

■ *Support affirmative action.* Racial and sex discrimination and other biases still exist. Affirmative action policies and programs in the education system are still needed to remedy historic disadvantages and continuing unequal treatment in American society and its institutions, including the education system. APAs should be included in affirmative action remedies.

■ *Improve the campus climate.* All colleges and universities should offer positive, thoughtful, and understanding environments for APA students, faculty, and staff, regardless of their numbers on campus. All colleges and universities should make every effort to include the APA experience in their faculty and staff development programs.

■ *Develop language programs.* Colleges and universities should collaborate with K–12 education and local APA communities to develop English as a Second Language intervention programs. Greater support should be given to the enhancement of existing Asian language programs on American campuses and to the develop-

Photo Credit: Buena Vista College

Photo Credit: Madison Area Technical College

ment of language programs that reflect the new Asian language groups in the United States.

■ *Transform the Curriculum.* All colleges and universities should ensure that the experiences of APAs are properly included and treated within their mission, curriculum, and programmatic planning. Teacher education and related training, in particular, need to incorporate the APA experience in their curriculum and practice. Departments, programs, and courses in Asian American studies should be encouraged and supported.

■ *Focus on high-risk APA groups.* Special attention should be given to high-risk ethnic groups within the APA population, with particular attention paid to the education of Southeast Asians and members of Pacific Islander communities.

■ *Focus on APA women and gender inequity.* All colleges and universities should focus on the limited representation and quality of the educational experience of APA women. APA women should be properly included and treated in the curriculum and all aspects of academic programming and campus life. Redressing gender inequity for APA women in higher education will involve the collaboration and support of K–12, students and their families, academic counselors, faculty, and the education system in general.

■ *Strengthen doctoral recruitment and retention efforts.* Strong recruitment and retention programs should be designed at doctoral degree–granting universities to encourage APAs to pursue such programs. All colleges and universities should identify and mentor qualified APA undergraduates for opportunities in graduate studies. Special attention should be given to ensure the representation of APA women and the diversity of APA ethnic groups.

■ *Open the higher education employment pipeline.* Strong faculty, staff, and administrator recruitment programs should be developed at all colleges and universities to ensure an open employment pipeline. Development of APA administrators, especially at the level of dean and higher, needs to be a top priority in higher education.

■ *Foster research on APAs.* More data and better qualitative and quantitative research on Asian Pacific Americans should be supported. All institutional research offices in higher education should be encouraged to collect and analyze both aggregate and disaggregate campus data on APAs.

High School Completion Rates

This section analyzes the most recent high school completion (HSC) rates for white, African American, and Hispanic 18- to 24-year-olds nationwide, based on the U.S. Census Bureau's 1996 Current Population Survey (CPS). These data include students who earned either a high school diploma or its equivalent, such as a General Educational Development (GED) credential. The CPS data do not include year-to-year HSC rates for Asian Americans or American Indians ages 18 to 24 because the survey sample is too small to provide reliable estimates.

CPS statistical data vary widely from year to year, and the figures cited here are national aggregates. High school completion rates also are lower for some groups in many urban and rural areas.

The 1995 CPS data show that African Americans and Hispanics ages 18 to 24 continue to trail whites in high school completion, a trend that has lasted for more than two decades. However, African Americans did experience gains of 12 percentage points from 1975 to 1995, reducing the gap with whites. Most of that increase took place before 1990 (Figure 1).

High school completion rates for Hispanics varied greatly over the past 20 years, and the 58.6 percent rate for 1995 is just slightly above rates from the mid-1970s (Table 1). However, the 1995 rate reflects an increase of 2 percentage points since 1994 and 4 percentage points since 1990.

The completion rate for whites declined slightly in 1995, to 81.9 percent, the second lowest figure since 1975. As a result of this slight downturn, the 1995 gap between HSC rates for whites and African Americans was only 5 percentage points, the smallest to date based on CPS data. Nonetheless, whites ages 18 to 24 continue to post HSC rates above those for other groups included in the CPS.

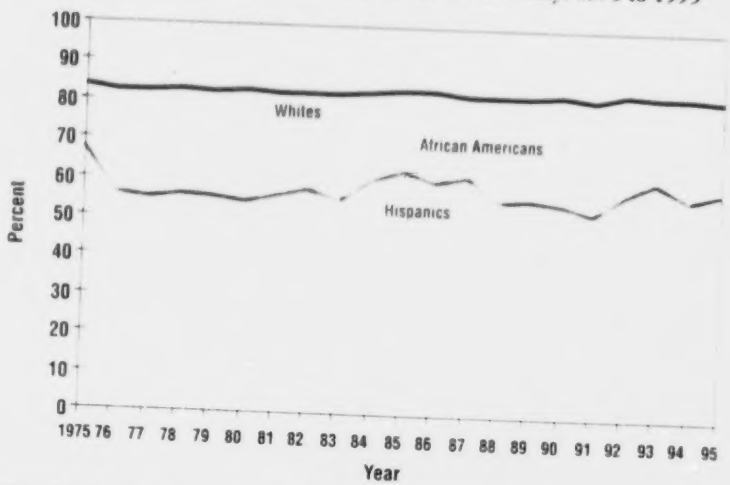
Women in all three groups posted higher HSC rates in 1995 than men, part of a continuing trend (Table 2). However, both Hispanic and African American men experienced gains, narrowing the gender gap with their female counterparts. The gender gap in 1995 was 3.3 percentage points for African Americans, 1.6 percentage points for Hispanics, and 3.5 percentage points for whites.

African Americans

■ The 1995 CPS data indicate that 76.9 percent of African Americans ages 18 to 24 completed high school, a rate virtually unchanged from the previous year and from 1990, when the HSC rate was 77 percent (Table 1).

■ African American men posted their fourth consecutive increase, moving from 73.7 percent in 1994 to 75.1 percent in 1995 (Table 2). This incremental growth has yet to result in any net gains for the

Figure 1
High School Completion Rates by Race and Ethnicity: 1975 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *School Enrollment—Social Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1995* Current Population Report, Series P-20.

1990s, however. African American men had their highest rate of high school completion, 75.9 percent, in 1990; this preceded a significant decrease the following year.

■ After reaching 80 percent in 1994, the HSC rate for African American women declined to 78.4 percent in 1995. The new rate reflects a slight increase from 1990 but is below the rates posted in the mid-1980s.

■ The one-year gain in HSC rates for men and the slight decline for women reduced the gender gap for African Americans from 6.3 percentage points in 1994 to 3.3 percentage points in 1995. The gap for 1995 was the smallest since 1990.

Hispanics

■ The HSC rates for Hispanics have fluctuated greatly during the past ten years. Hispanics posted increases during 1995, but their completion rates remain far behind those of African Americans and whites. Their completion rate for 1995 was 58.6 percent, an increase of 2 percentage points from the previous year and 4 percentage points from 1990 (Table 1). However, the 1995 rate for Hispanics still is below those of the mid-1980s, when completion rates were above 60 percent.

■ HSC rates for Hispanic men continued to fluctuate. The 1995 rate of 58 percent was more than 4 percentage points higher than the previous year, but similar to the 58.8 percent recorded in 1993 (Table 2). Despite these fluctuations, however, Hispanic men have made progress since 1990.

■ The high school completion rate for Hispanic women was largely unchanged, at 59.6 percent in 1995. Overall, women have experienced a gain of approximately 4 percentage points since 1990, but the rates still are below those of a decade ago.

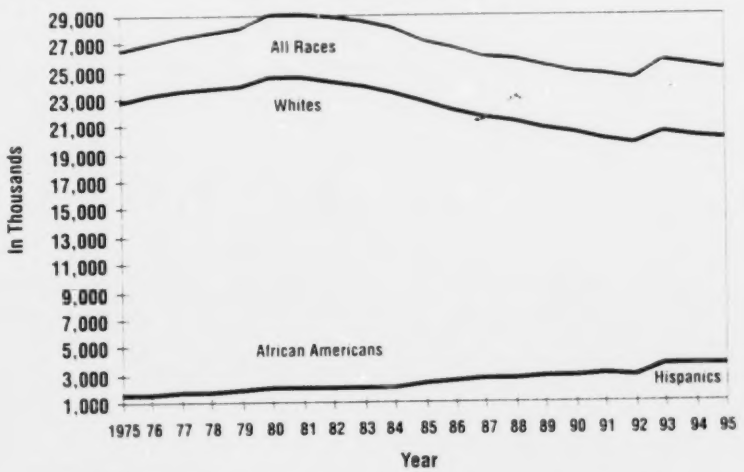
■ The gains by Hispanic men in 1995 resulted in a decline in the gender gap with Hispanic women. The gap was 1.6 percentage points in 1995, down from 6 percentage points the previous year and 4.5 percentage points in 1993.

College Participation Rates

College-participation rates are an important indicator of progress for students of color in higher education. Unlike enrollment figures, which examine college attendance during a specific period of time, participation rates track both the current enrollment and recent college attendance patterns of given age groups, most notably the 18- to 24-year-old population.

Three types of college participation rates are available from the U.S. Census Bureau: the percentage of all 18- to 24-year-olds enrolled in college; the percentage of high school graduates ages 18 to 24 who are enrolled in college; and the percentage of high school graduates ages 14 to 24 who are enrolled in college or have completed at least one year of postsecondary education. This third category is referred to as the "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate.

Figure 2
Changes in the 18- to 24-Year-Old Population by Race and Ethnicity: 1975 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *School Enrollment—Social Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1995* Current Population Report, Series P-20.

This section focuses primarily on the percentage of 18- to 24-year-old high school graduates who are enrolled in college, but includes some discussion of the "ever-enrolled" rate. Readers should interpret this information cautiously, however, because it provides only a general profile of participation rates.[1]

Nationwide, the number of college-age youths continued to decrease in 1995, primarily because of a decline among whites. After peaking in 1981, the number of college-age youths has dropped by 8.2 percent, with whites showing a decrease of 12.2 percent (Table 1). Most of this decline occurred during the 1980s. Since 1990, the number of college-age youths has held steady (Figure 2).

The number of youths in the African American college-age population has remained constant throughout the 1990s, following a decline in the 1980s. Overall, the African American college-age population increased by 3 percent from 1990 to 1995. The Hispanic college-age population has increased by 62 percent during the past ten years and by 31 percent since 1990.

During the past two decades, the college participation rate for whites has increased by more than 10 percentage points (Figure 3). African Americans experienced a decline in their college-going rate during the 1980s, a drop that has been offset by overall gains during the 1990s; the result is a 3 percentage point gain for the 20-year period. Similarly, during the 1990s, Hispanics have regained the ground they lost in their college participation rates during the 1980s. Their current college participation rate is at approximately the same level as it was 20 years ago.

College participation rates among all high school graduates ages 18 to 24 remained unchanged in 1995. However, the rate of 42.4 percent, identical to the 1994 rate, remains the highest ever recorded, and is up by 3 percentage points from 1990 and by nearly 9 percentage points from a decade ago.

Between 1994 and 1995, Hispanics made the most progress of the three groups for which data are available. The Hispanic college participation rate of 35.3 percent represented an increase of 2 percentage points from 1994 (Figure 4). African Americans posted a similar rate of 35.4 percent. Both groups, however, continued to trail whites, who recorded their highest college participation rate ever, at 43.1 percent.

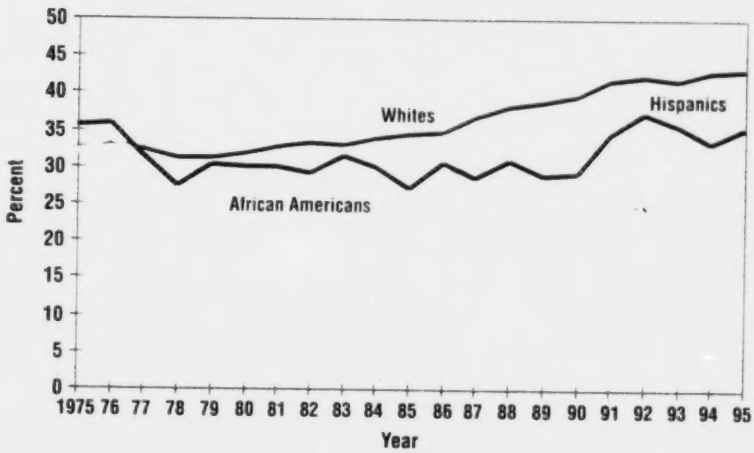
African Americans

■ The 35.4 percent participation rate for African Americans ages 18 to 24 was virtually unchanged from 1994. As a group, however, African American high school graduates have gained 2.4 percentage points in terms of college participation since 1990 and 9.3 percentage points during the past ten years.

■ Between 1994 and 1995, college participation among African American male high school graduates remained steady at 34.4 percent (Table 2). During the past decade, however, this rate has fluctuated widely from year to year. Nevertheless, the 1995 rate is the same as that posted in 1990.

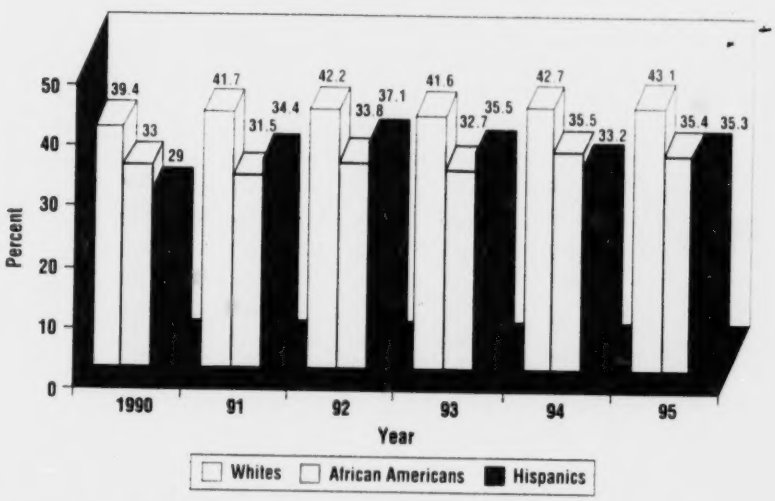
■ College participation rates for African American female high school graduates also remained roughly the same in 1995, at 36.2 percent. Despite year-to-year fluctuations, this rate has increased by nearly 12 percentage points since the mid-1980s and by more than 4 percentage points since 1990.

Figure 3
Enrolled-in-College Participation Rates for 18- to 24-Year-Old High School Graduates by Race and Ethnicity: 1975 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *School Enrollment—Social Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1995* Current Population Report, Series P-20.

Figure 4
Enrolled-in-College Participation Rates for 18- to 24-Year-Old High School Graduates by Race and Ethnicity: 1990 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *School Enrollment—Social Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1995* Current Population Report, Series P-20.

■ African American men and women experienced slight declines in the "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate for 1995. Fifty-eight percent of African Americans ages 14 to 24 reported enrolling in college at some point in their lives, down from 59.2 percent the previous year (Table 1). The 1994 rate was the highest ever and reflected a large one-year increase. (Note that these rates vary considerably from year to year, and small changes should be viewed with caution.)

■ More than 56 percent of African American male high school graduates ages 14 to 24 reported attending college at some point in their lives (Table 2). This rate also was down slightly from 1994, a year in which the rate increased sharply (by nearly 8 percentage points).

■ More than 59 percent of African American female high school graduates ages 14 to 24 reported attending college at some point in their lives. This rate was down slightly from 1994, but reflects an increase of 12 percentage points since 1990.

Hispanics

■ Compared with the previous year, a slightly higher percentage of Hispanic high school graduates ages 18 to 24 attended college in 1995 (Table 1). The 1995 rate of 35.3 percent represents an increase of 2 percentage points from 1994, but is virtually the same as the 1993 rate.

■ Both men and women contributed to this increase in Hispanic college participation in 1995. The rate for Hispanic men rose from 30.6 percent to 32.2 percent, while the rate for Hispanic women was up from 36 percent to 38.4 percent (Table 2).

■ Despite the gains made by Hispanic men, the gender gap in participation rates remains larger among Hispanics than among the other two groups. The gender gap for Hispanics was 6 percentage points in 1995, more than three times as large as the gender gaps among African Americans and whites.

■ Hispanics have experienced steady gains in college participation since 1990 and during the past ten years. The 35.3 percent college participation rate for 1995 is up by more than 6 percentage points from 1990 after stagnating during much of the 1980s (Table 1).

■ Hispanics also gained ground in the "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate. The 55.8 percent rate for 1995 is up by 1.5 percentage points from the previous year and by 11 percentage points since 1990.

■ The "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate differed significantly by gender among Hispanics in 1995 (Table 2). The "ever-enrolled" rate for females increased from 55.9 percent in 1994 to 59.6 percent in 1995, while the rate for men changed little, from 52.7 percent in 1994 to 52.3 percent in 1995.

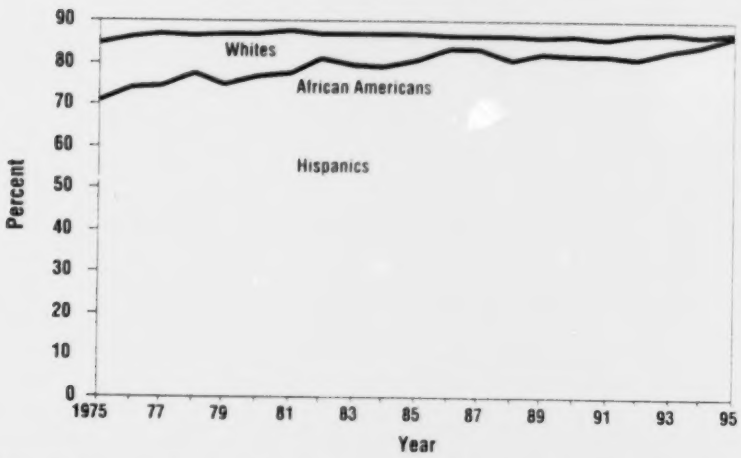
Educational Attainment

Data on educational attainment provide important insights regarding the economic well-being of Americans; higher levels of educational achievement typically contribute to greater socioeconomic success. This new section highlights educational attainment by those ages 25 and older, particularly members of the 25- to 29-year-old population who attended high school and college during the previous ten-year period. The report uses data from the Census Bureau's March 1995 Current Population Survey on Educational Attainment (CPS).

Nationwide, the proportion of adults ages 25 to 29 who had completed high school in 1995 was virtually unchanged from a decade ago. In 1995, nearly 87 percent of Americans in this age group had completed four years of high school or more, the same rate as in 1985. Nonetheless, African Americans closed the gap with whites in terms of high school completion during this period (Figure 5). In 1985, African Americans trailed whites by more than 6 percentage points (Table 3). By 1995, however, the two 25- to 29-year-old age groups posted similar high school completion rates.

With a rate of 57.1 percent, Hispanics trail the other two groups substantially in terms of the number of 25- to 29-year-olds with four years of high school or more. In 1995, the gap was 30 percentage points.

Figure 5
High School Completion Rates for Persons 25 to 29 Years Old by Race and Ethnicity: 1975 to 1995



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. *Educational Attainment in the United States: March 1995.* Current Population Reports, P-20 Series.

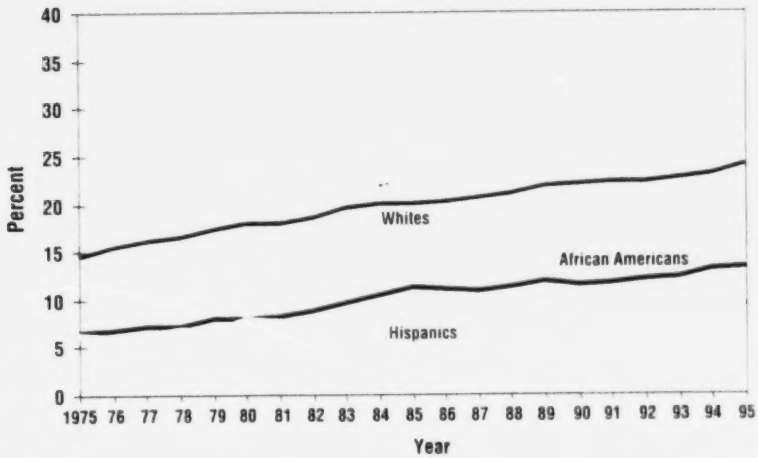
High school completion rates for 25- to 29-year-olds differ from CPS data on high school completion rates for those ages 18 to 24. The difference is most striking among African Americans. More than 86 percent of African Americans ages 25 to 29 had completed four years of high school or more in 1995 (Table 3), compared with a high school completion rate of 76.9 percent among African Americans ages 18 to 24 that same year (Table 1). The higher figure for the 25- to 29-year-old population may reflect the number of African Americans who complete high school requirements later in life through equivalency exams.

This trend was not evident among Hispanics, however. Approximately 57.1 percent of Hispanics ages 25 to 29 had completed four years of high school or more in 1995, a rate slightly lower than the 58.6 percent high school completion rate for 18- to 24-year-old Hispanics the same year.

CPS data indicate that fewer than one in four persons ages 25 to 29 had completed four or more years of college as of 1995 (Table 3). Despite year-to-year fluctuations, this rate has remained stable for the past two decades, ranging between 21 percent and the 1995 rate of 24.7 percent, the highest ever.

Among the three groups for which survey data are reported, African Americans and Hispanics trailed whites significantly in the percentage of adults ages 25 to 29 with four or more years of college (Figure 6). Approximately 26 percent of whites in this age group had completed four or more

Figure 6
Persons 25 Years Old and Over Who Have Four or More Years of College by Race and Ethnicity: 1975 to 1995



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Educational Attainment in the United States: March 1995*, Current Population Reports, P-20 Series.

years of college in 1995, compared with 15.3 percent of African Americans. Hispanics in this category remained in the single digits, at 8.9 percent.

Nationwide, the proportion of all Americans ages 25 and over who have completed four years of high school or more grew during the past decade, from 73.9 percent in 1985 to 81.7 percent in 1995. African Americans, Hispanics, and whites all contributed to this increase. African Americans also narrowed the gap in completion rates with whites, from nearly 15.7 percentage points in 1985 to 9.2 percentage points in 1995. Hispanics continued to trail both whites and African Americans, however, despite progress from 1985 to 1995. In 1995, Hispanics ages 25 and older trailed their white counterparts in high school completion rates by nearly 30 percentage points.

The share of Americans ages 25 and older who have completed four or more years of college increased slightly during the past decade, from 19.4 percent in 1985 to 23 percent in 1995. Whites, African Americans, and Hispanics all posted higher completion rates for this decade, although the rate for African Americans is barely half that for whites (Figure 6). Hispanics trail both groups: Fewer than 10 percent of Hispanic adults ages 25 and older had completed four or more years of college in 1995.

African Americans

■ African Americans have posted consistent increases in the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds with four years of high school or more. Their rate of 86.5 percent in 1995 was up by more than 2.4 percentage points from the previous year and by nearly 6 percentage points from 1985 (Table 3).

■ The proportion of African American men with four years of high school or more increased in 1995 from 82.9 percent to 88.1 percent, the highest rate ever. Despite year-to-year fluctuations, the rate for African American men has increased by nearly 7 percentage points since 1990.

■ The share of African American women with four years of high school or more has remained steady at 85 percent for the past two years. This figure reflects a gain of more than 3 percentage points since 1990. However, the 1995 attainment rate for women is slightly below the corresponding rate for African American men.

■ A higher percentage of African Americans ages 25 to 29 had completed four or more years of college in 1995 than in 1990. The 1995 rate, 15.3 percent, reflects increases of nearly 2 percentage points since 1990 and of 3.8 percentage points over the past ten years.

■ Despite these gains, African Americans in 1995 continued to trail whites in the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds with four or more years of college. The African American rate of 15.3 percent remained far below the 26 percent rate for whites.

■ Nearly 74 percent of African Americans ages 25 and older had completed four years of high school or more in 1995, compared with 59.8 percent a decade earlier and 66.2 percent in 1990.

■ Just over 13 percent of African Americans ages 25 and older had completed four or more years of college in 1995. This reflects an increase of 2 percentage points since 1985. However, this rate is barely more than half the 24 percent college completion rate among whites ages 25 and older.

Hispanics

■ Hispanics continue to trail whites and African Americans significantly in the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds with at least four years of high school. The 57.1 percent rate for Hispanics in 1995 represents a decline of 3.8 percentage points since 1992 and is below comparable rates for 1985 and 1990.

Photo Credit: Santa Clara University

■ The proportion of 25- to 29-year-old Hispanic males with four years of high school or more declined for the third consecutive year to 55.7 percent, a rate below those recorded in 1985 and 1990.

■ The share of 25- to 29-year-old Hispanic females with four years of high school or more declined in 1995, falling below 60 percent for the first time since 1991. The 58.7 percent rate in 1995 was down by 4.3 percentage points from the previous year and by more than 5.3 percentage points from 1993.

■ Despite year-to-year fluctuations, the percentage of Hispanics with four years of college or more was virtually the same in 1995 as it was in 1975. Less than 9 percent of Hispanics ages 25 to 29 had completed four or more years of college in 1995. This rate was up slightly from 1994 but reflects a drop from the mid- and late-1980s, when the rate was above 10 percent.

■ In 1995, 53.4 percent of all Hispanics ages 25 and older had finished four years of high school or more, compared with 50.8 percent in 1990 and 47.9 percent in 1985. Despite this progress, these rates remain far below those for African Americans and whites.

■ Only 9.3 percent of Hispanics ages 25 and older had completed four or more years of college in 1995, the lowest rate among the three groups. Hispanics have made little progress in this area over the past decade.

College Enrollment Trends

Students of color have posted steady increases in college enrollment since the mid-1980s. Enrollment among students of color increased by 67.7 percent from 1984 to 1995, including an increase of 29.2 percent since 1990 (Table 4). However, the rate of increase has slowed over the past several years. The 2.9 percent one-year gain in 1995 was below those of 4.6 percent in 1994 and 7.1 percent in 1992.

Overall college enrollment remained virtually unchanged from 1994 to 1995, though it has declined slightly over the past three years. The main reason for this downward trend is a continuing enrollment decrease among whites, whose college-age population has diminished during the 1980s and 1990s. Since 1991, enrollment of whites is down by 6.2 percent, including a 1.1 percent decline from 1994 to 1995. Slower enrollment growth among students of color also is a factor in the stagnation in total enrollment during the past two years. In 1995, total enrollment remained virtually unchanged at four-year colleges and uni-versities and declined slightly at two-year institutions.

The four major ethnic minority groups all achieved small enrollment increases from 1994 to 1995. Hispanics and American Indians had the largest overall gains, of 4.6 percent and 3.1 percent, respectively, while African Americans experienced the smallest gains. American Indians posted the largest increase at four-year institutions, but they lost ground at the two-year level. Hispanics recorded the largest one-year gain at two-year institutions in 1995 (Figure 7).

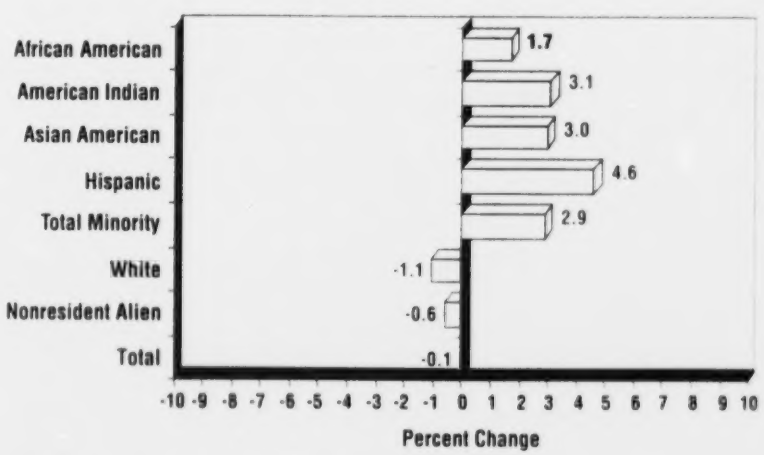
Both men and women of color achieved enrollment gains in 1995 (Table 5), but at lesser rates than in recent years. Enrollment among minority women increased by 3.5 percent in 1995, compared with a 5.3 percent gain the previous year. Enrollment among minority men increased by 2.2 percent in 1995, which was below the 4.1 percent gain made the previous year.

Enrollment by students of color increased in 1995 in each of the three major sectors of higher education (Table 6). The 6.1 percent gain in graduate enrollment was the largest by students of color. The four ethnic minority groups also achieved gains of 5.5 percent at the professional level and 2.6 percent at the undergraduate level. Minority students experienced slightly larger enrollment increases at independent institutions than at public colleges and universities (Table 5). However, most students of color continue to enroll at lower-cost public institutions. Overall, public colleges and universities enrolled 81.5 percent of all minority students in higher education in 1995, compared with 77.1 percent of white students.

African Americans

■ Since 1990, college enrollment among African Americans has increased by 18.2 percent, the smallest gain among the four ethnic minority groups. In 1995,

Figure 7
Changes in Enrollment by Race and Ethnicity: 1994 to 1995



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1997.

African Americans represented 10.3 percent of all college students, up from 9 percent in 1990.

■ The 2.2 percent enrollment increase for African Americans at four-year colleges and universities was the smallest among the four major ethnic minority groups in 1995. However, African American enrollment at four-year institutions has increased each year during the 1990s, for a total gain of 17.9 percent for the period.

■ African Americans recorded a 1 percent enrollment increase at two-year colleges in 1995, their second consecutive increase following a decline in 1993. Since 1990, African Americans have achieved an 18.5 percent enrollment increase at two-year colleges. Two-year institutions also enrolled 42.1 percent of all African American students in higher education in 1995.

■ For the second consecutive year, African Americans experienced larger one-year enrollment gains at independent institutions than at public institutions (Table 5). The 2.9 percent increase at independent colleges and universities was more than double the 1.4 percent gain at public institutions (Figure 8). However, most African American students continue to attend lower-cost public colleges and universities.

■ African Americans had the largest increase in graduate school enrollment among the four major ethnic minority groups in 1995 (Table 6). The 7.2 percent gain for African Americans continued a steady upward trend in graduate enrollment. Since 1990, African American enrollment in graduate study has increased by 41.7 percent. However, African Americans represented only 6.9 percent of all graduate students in 1995.

■ A 1.2 percent increase for African Americans in undergraduate enrollment continued an upward trend in 1995. However, this rate trailed those for Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians for the year. Nationwide, 10.9 percent of all undergraduates in 1995 were African American.

■ African American enrollment in professional schools increased by 3.7 percent in 1995, continuing an upward trend that began in 1990. Enrollment of African Americans in professional schools increased by 31.3 percent from 1990 through 1995. However, African Americans account for only 7 percent of professional school students.

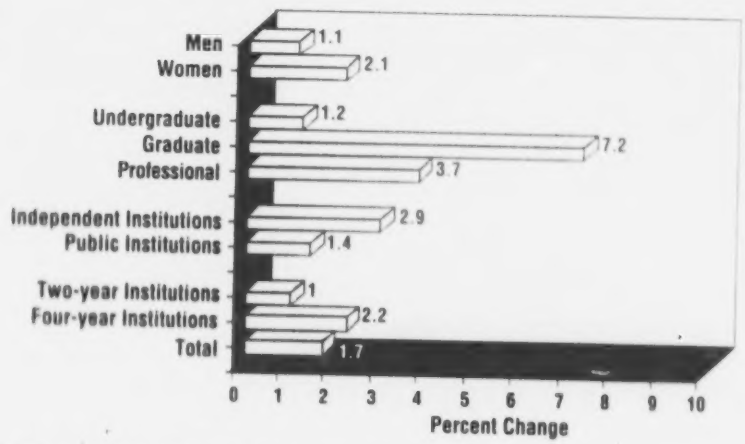
■ African American women posted a 2.1 percent increase in higher education enrollment for 1995, continuing an upward trend (Table 5). Since 1990, enrollment of African American women has increased by 20.1 percent. Enrollment by African American men has grown at a slower pace throughout the 1990s, with increases of 1.1 percent in 1995 and 14.6 percent since 1990.

■ Enrollment of African Americans at historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) increased slightly in 1995, making up for an unexpected decline the previous year (Table 7). Since 1986, African Americans have shown enrollment gains at HBCUs of 30.4 percent.

■ For the second consecutive year, HBCUs enrolled a smaller percentage of African Americans in higher education. HBCUs enrolled 15.6 percent of all African Americans at U.S. colleges and universities in 1995, down from 16.6 percent in 1990.

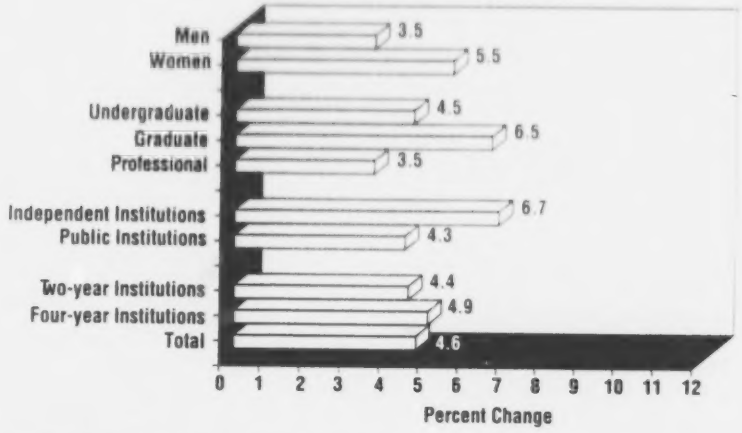
■ Fewer African American men enrolled at HBCUs in 1995; this was true for both public and independent colleges and universities (Table 8). However, increases in the number of women at both public and independent HBCUs were sufficient to

Figure 8
Changes in African American Enrollments by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution: 1994 to 1995



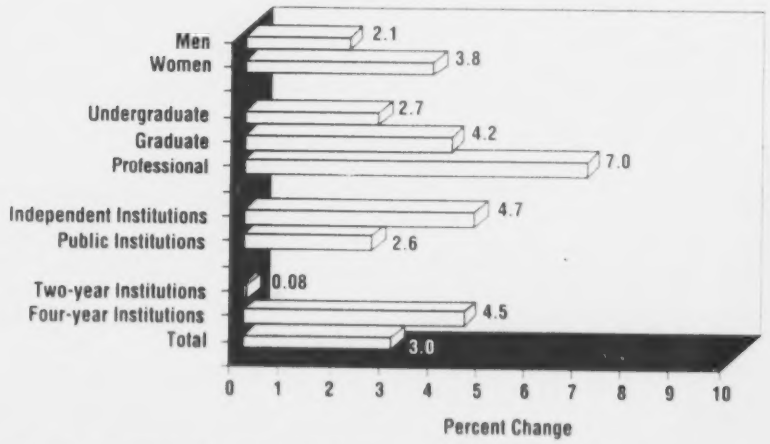
Source: National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1997.

Figure 9
Changes in Hispanic Enrollments by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution: 1994 to 1995



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1997.

Figure 10
Changes in Asian American Enrollments by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution: 1994 to 1995



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1997.

show net gains for African Americans for the year.

Hispanics

■ The number of Hispanics enrolled in U.S. higher education more than doubled between 1984 and 1995; this increase was the largest among the four major ethnic minority groups (Table 4). Hispanic enrollment has grown by 39.6 percent since 1990.

■ A 4.6 percent increase in Hispanic enrollment in 1995 was the largest one-year gain among the four major ethnic minority groups. Hispanics also recorded the largest one-year enrollment gain at two-year institutions and trailed only American Indians at the four-year level.

■ The number of Hispanics at four-year institutions increased by 4.9 percent in 1995, compared with a 4.3 percent gain at two-year colleges (Figure 9). However, the majority of Hispanic students (55.6 percent) enrolled at two-year colleges in 1995.

■ Hispanic women and men recorded small enrollment increases of 5.5 percent and 3.5 percent, respectively, in 1995 (Table 5). The gain for Hispanic women was the largest among women in the four major ethnic minority groups, while Hispanic men tied American Indian men for the largest gain among men in the same groups.

■ Despite enrollment gains, Hispanics in 1995 represented only 8.3 percent of undergraduate students, 3.9 percent of graduate students, and 4.7 percent of first-professional students (Table 6). This compares with a total Hispanic representation of 14.5 percent among the traditional college-age population.

■ Among the four ethnic minority groups, Hispanics recorded the largest increase in undergraduate enrollment and the second-largest gain in graduate enrollment in 1995 (Table 6). The increases were 6.5 percent at the graduate level, 4.5 percent at the undergraduate level, and 3.2 percent at the professional level.

■ Hispanics posted enrollment gains of 6.7 percent at independent institutions and 4.3 percent at public institutions in 1995 (Table 5). However, lower-cost public institutions continue to enroll most Hispanic students, including 85.7 percent of those attending college in 1995.

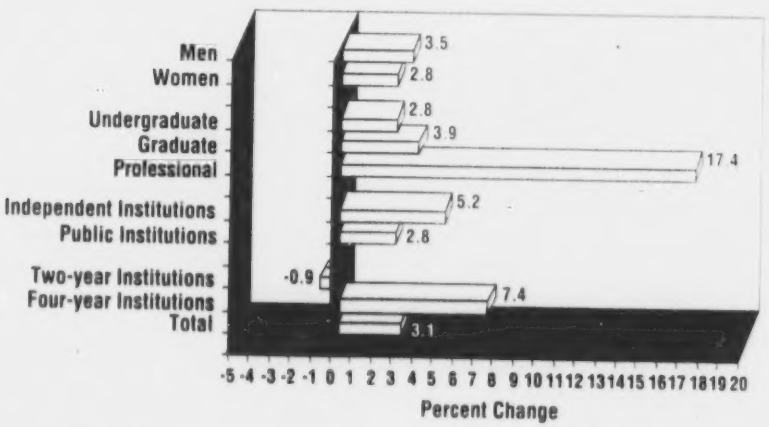
Asian Americans

■ The number of Asian Americans enrolled in higher education increased by 3 percent in 1995 (Table 4). Since 1990, Asian Americans have achieved a total enrollment gain of 39 percent, and the number of Asian Americans in higher education has more than doubled since 1984, from 390,000 to 797,000. Asian Americans represented 5.6 percent of all college students in 1995, up from 3.2 percent in 1984.

■ The number of Asian Americans at four-year institutions increased by 4.5 percent in 1995, a gain greater than they posted at two-year institutions (Figure 10, previous page). Nonetheless, Asian American enrollment has increased faster at two-year than at four-year institutions during the 1990s. Enrollment of Asian Americans is up by 46.5 percent at two-year institutions since 1990, compared with a 35 percent increase at four-year colleges and universities.

■ Undergraduate enrollment among Asian Americans increased by 2.7 percent in 1995, contributing to a steady upward trend (Table 6). The number of Asian American undergraduates has more than doubled since 1984.

Figure 11
Changes in American Indian Enrollments by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution: 1994 to 1995



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1997.

■ Asian American enrollment increased by 7 percent at professional schools and by 4.2 percent at graduate schools in 1995.

■ The number of Asian American women enrolled in college increased by 3.8 percent in 1995, which was slightly greater than the 2.1 percent gain for the year for Asian American men (Table 5). Since 1990, enrollments of Asian American women have risen by 45.3 percent, compared with a 33.2 percent increase for Asian American men.

■ Asian Americans posted a 4.7 percent enrollment increase at independent institutions in 1995, compared with a 2.6 percent gain at public colleges and universities. Nonetheless, public institutions enrolled 80 percent of Asian American students in 1995.

American Indians

■ The number of American Indians enrolled in higher education rose slightly in 1995, but it remains small. American Indians accounted for less than 1 percent of all students in higher education in 1995 (Table 4). In 1995, 131,000 American Indians attended college.

■ At four-year institutions, American Indians had the largest one-year enrollment increase (7.4 percent) of the four major ethnic minority groups. However, American Indians experienced a decline in enrollment of nearly 1 percent at two-year institutions, which continue to enroll a majority of all American Indian students.

■ American Indian men achieved larger enrollment gains than American Indian women in 1995 (Figure 11). The 3.5 percent increase for American Indian men was

Photo Credit: St. Louis Community College

identical to the increase for Hispanic men and exceeded the gains for African American and Asian American men (Table 5). The 2.8 percent increase for American Indian women was smaller than the gains made by Hispanic and Asian American women.

■ American Indians recorded a 5.2 percent enrollment increase at independent institutions in 1995; however, only 17,458 American Indian students were enrolled at these institutions. Nearly 90 percent of American Indians in higher education attended public institutions in 1995. American Indian enrollment at these lower-cost colleges and universities increased by 2.8 percent for the year.

■ During 1995, American Indians posted increases in their undergraduate, graduate, and professional school enrollments (Table 6). The professional school enrollment increase of 17.4 percent was the largest recorded among the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ Despite these increases, only 8,450 American Indians were enrolled in graduate school, and only 2,139 were enrolled in professional schools in 1995.

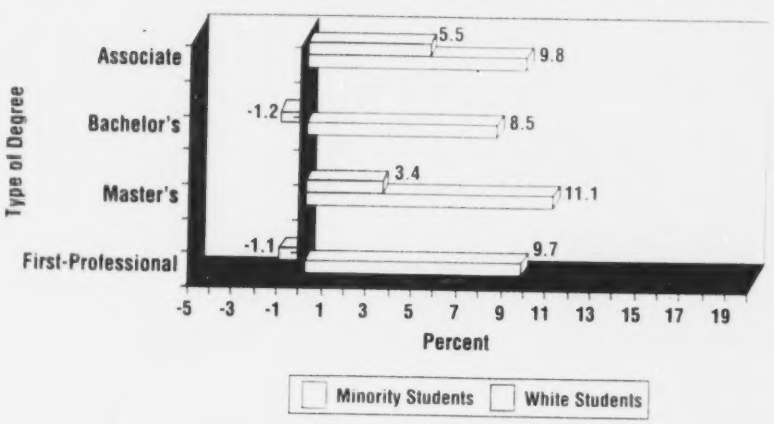
Degrees Conferred

Previous editions of this annual report documented important gains achieved by students of color in the late 1980s and early 1990s. However, the gains varied considerably among the four major ethnic minority groups. These trends continued in 1994, the most recent year for which data are available. This year's report provides updated information based on new data from the National Center for Education Statistics and other sources. Data for associate, bachelor's, master's, and first-professional degrees are from NCES. Data on doctoral degrees are provided through the National Research Council's (NRC) Survey on Earned Doctorates.

As a group, students of color achieved progress in all four degree categories from 1993 to 1994, led by an 11.1 percent increase at the master's degree level (Table 11). The four minority groups also experienced combined increases of 9.8 percent in the number of associate degrees earned, 8.5 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees, and 9.7 percent in the number of first-professional degrees. During this one-year period, the increase in the number of degrees awarded to students of color far exceeded the increase for white students in all four categories (Figure 12). The number of whites earning degrees also fell at the bachelor's and first-professional levels during the period.

Both men and women of color experienced moderate gains in all four degree categories in the 1993–94 academic year. Women of color recorded double-digit growth in every category but the bachelor's degree and outgained men of color in each degree category.

Figure 12
Changes in Degrees Awarded to Minority and White Students by Type of Degree: 1993 to 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996.

Students of color achieved a small increase in the total share of degrees earned in 1994, compared with the previous year. Minorities earned 16.8 percent of all bachelor's degrees conferred in 1994, up by 1.2 percentage points from 1993 and by 2.2 percentage points from 1992 (Table 10). However, students of color accounted for 22.3 percent of all four-year undergraduate students in 1994 (Figure 13). The discrepancy between these figures indicates that minority representation among degree recipients remains below minorities' share of total four-year undergraduate enrollments.

Similar trends were evident at all other degree levels. At the master's level, students of color also have made proportional gains during the past two years. They earned 13.2 percent of all master's degrees awarded in 1994, up from 12.4 percent in 1993 and 11.9 percent in 1992 (Table 11). However, minorities accounted for 14.8 percent of enrollments at the graduate level in 1994 (Figure 13).

Students of color earned 18.4 percent of all first-professional degrees in 1994, a steady increase from 16.8 percent in 1993 and 15.4 percent in 1992 (Table 12). However, minorities represented 21.6 percent of all first-professional students in 1994 (Figure 13).

African Americans

■ African Americans posted moderate increases in all four degree categories in 1994, ranging from 7.3 percent at the bachelor's level to 10.9 percent at the master's level (Figure 14).

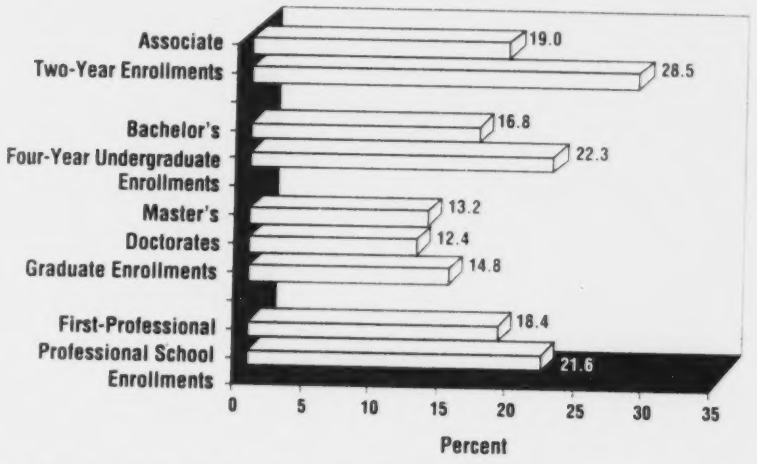
■ The 7.3 percent increase at the bachelor's level in 1994 was the smallest rate of growth among the four major ethnic minority groups, a trend that also was evident in 1993.

■ African American women posted larger one-year increases than African American men in the number of bachelor's, master's, and first-professional degrees earned in 1994. The gains for African American women ranged from 8 percent at the bachelor's level to 12.1 percent at the master's level. The increases in the number of African American men earning degrees ranged from a low of 6.1 percent at the bachelor's level to a high of 12.1 percent at the associate level.

■ After declining in the late-1980s, the number of African Americans earning bachelor's degrees has increased at a steady pace since 1990. The 36.8 percent increase in the number of bachelor's degrees earned from 1990 to 1994 is greater than the undergraduate enrollment increase of 14.8 percent for African Americans during this period. Despite this growth, however, African Americans received only 7.2 percent of all bachelor's degrees awarded in 1994; they accounted for 10.7 percent of all undergraduate students at four-year institutions.

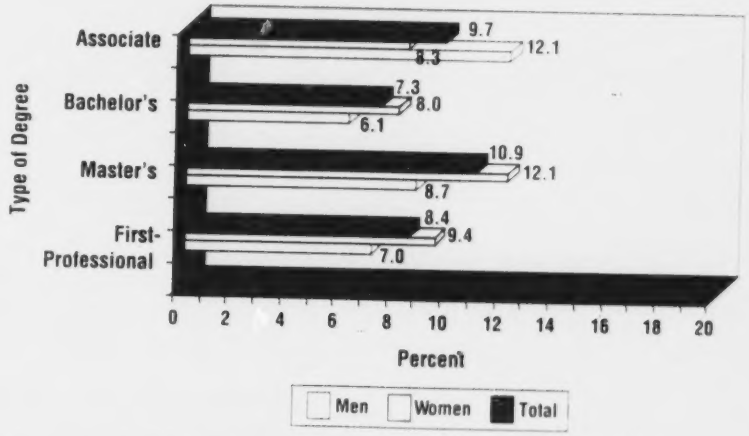
■ African Americans at historically black colleges and universities posted increases in all degree categories in 1994 (Table 13). These gains included 15.2 percent at the

Figure 13
Minority Share of Enrollments and Degrees Conferred by Degree Level: 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education. *Digest of Education Statistics, 1996* and *Enrollment in Higher Education: Fall 1986 through Fall 1995*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996.

Figure 14
Changes in Degrees Awarded to African Americans by Type of Degree and Gender: 1993 to 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education. *Digest of Education Statistics, 1996*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996.

master's level and 6.4 percent at the bachelor's level. Nationwide, HBCUs awarded 28 percent of all bachelor's degrees, 14.5 percent of all master's degrees, and 15.5 percent of all first-professional degrees earned by African Americans in 1994.

Hispanics

■ Hispanics posted a 10.7 percent increase in the number of bachelor's degrees earned in 1994, the largest increase among the four major ethnic minority groups in this category.

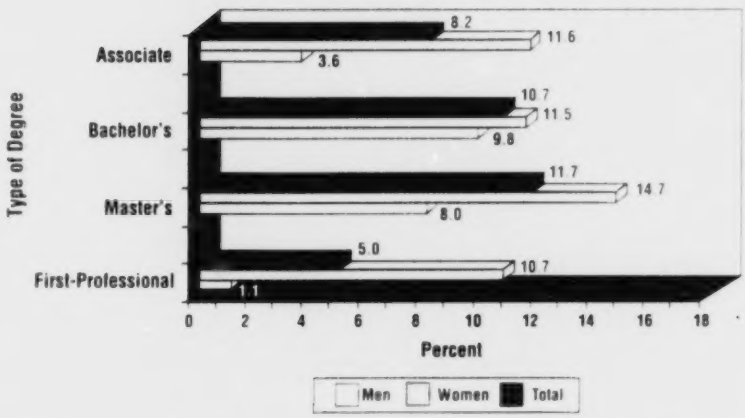
■ Hispanics' 8.2 percent increase in the number of associate degrees earned in 1994 was the smallest among the four ethnic groups. However, Hispanics have recorded a gain of 46 percent at this level since 1990.

■ Hispanic men earned 9.8 percent more bachelor's degrees and 8 percent more master's degrees in 1994 (Figure 15). However, they experienced a growth rate of only 3.6 percent in the number of associate degrees and a 1.1 percent increase in first-professional degrees during the period.

■ Hispanic women outgained Hispanic men in all four degree categories. Gains registered by Hispanic women included 11.6 percent in the number of associate degrees, 11.5 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees, 14.7 percent in the number of master's degrees, and 10.7 percent in the number of first-professional degrees earned in 1994.

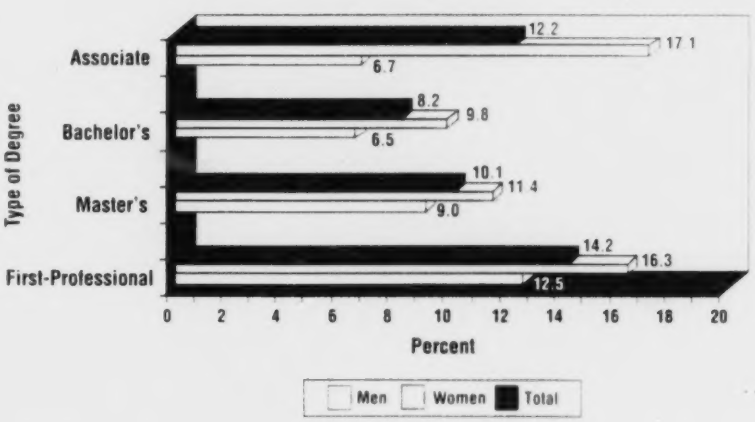
■ Despite these increases, Hispanics remain underrepresented in the number of degrees conferred when compared with their college enrollment. They earned only 6 percent of all associate degrees, 4.3 percent of all bachelor's degrees, 3.1 percent

Figure 15
Changes in Degrees Awarded to Hispanics by Type of Degree and Gender: 1993 to 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. U.S. Department of Education. *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996.

Figure 16
Changes in Degrees Awarded to Asian Americans by Type of Degree and Gender: 1993 to 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics. U.S. Department of Education. *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996.

of all master's degrees, and 4.2 percent of all first-professional degrees in 1994. Yet, Hispanics represented 7.9 percent of all four-year undergraduate students, 3.7 percent of all graduate students, and 4.4 percent of professional students that same year.

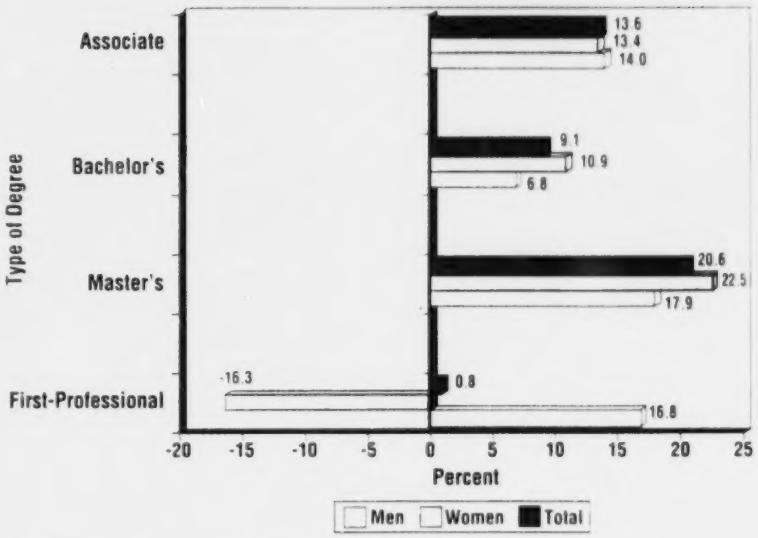
■ Hispanic students attending Hispanic-serving institutions (HSIs)—colleges and universities with undergraduate enrollments that are 25 percent or more Hispanic—achieved gains in all degree categories from 1993 to 1994 (Table 14). The number of Hispanics earning degrees at these institutions increased by 6 percent at the associate degree level, 6.6 percent at the bachelor's level, and 8.5 percent at the master's level for the year. These rates are below those recorded in 1993, but it is noteworthy that the number of institutions classified as HSIs increased by 17 percent that year and by 5.8 percent between 1993 and 1994.

■ Overall, HSIs awarded 42.6 percent of the associate degrees earned by Hispanics in 1993, a small decrease from the previous year. HSIs also awarded 19.2 percent of bachelor's degrees and 16.4 percent of master's degrees earned by Hispanics in 1994. However, these colleges and universities awarded only 3.7 percent of the first-professional degrees earned by Hispanics in 1994.

Asian Americans

■ Asian Americans experienced increases in all degree categories from 1993 to 1994, with gains that ranged from a low of 8.2 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees to a high of 14.2 percent in the number of first-professional degrees (Figure 16).

Figure 17
Changes in Degrees Awarded to American Indians by Type of Degree and Gender: 1993 to 1994



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education. *Digest of Education Statistics, 1996*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996.

■ The increase of 17.1 percent in the number of associate degrees awarded to Asian American women was nearly three times the increase for Asian American men in 1994. Since 1985, the number of Asian American women earning associate degrees has more than doubled, compared with a 53 percent increase for Asian American men.

■ Asian American men and women recorded double-digit growth in the number of first-professional degrees earned in 1994. Asian American women posted a 16.3 percent increase from 1993 to 1994, continuing a steady growth trend dating back to the mid-1980s. The number of first-professional degrees awarded to Asian American men increased by 12.5 percent in 1994, continuing another long-term upward trend.

■ The number of Asian American women earning degrees in all four categories has more than doubled since 1985.

■ In 1994, Asian Americans accounted for 9.5 percent of all first-professional students and earned 7.8 percent of first-professional degrees. Asian Americans also accounted for 5.5 percent of undergraduate students and earned 4.8 percent of bachelor's degrees and 3.4 percent of associate degrees awarded in 1993. Asian Americans represented 4.2 percent of all graduate students and earned 4 percent of master's degrees in 1994.

American Indians

■ Despite making progress in 1994, American Indians continued to earn less than 1 percent of degrees conferred in all four major categories.

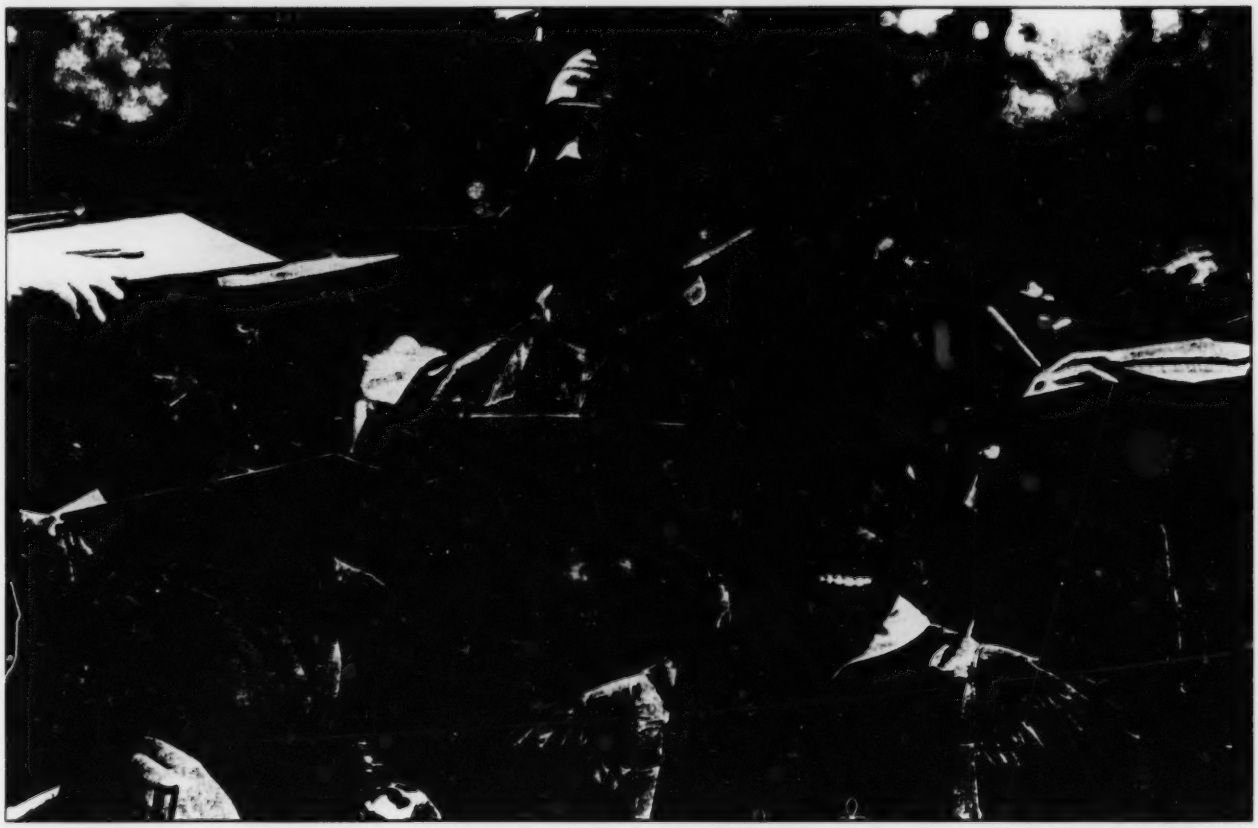


Photo Credit: Harvard University

■ American Indians registered their largest increase from 1993 to 1994 at the master's level, with a gain of 20.6 percent in the number of degrees earned. The growth at this level was the largest among the four major ethnic minority groups. However, at the first-professional level, American Indians earned only three more degrees in 1994 than in 1993.

■ American Indian men outgained American Indian women in the associate and first-professional degrees earned from 1993 to 1994, while American Indian women achieved larger percentage increases in bachelor's and master's degrees (Figure 17, previous page).

■ American Indian women experienced a decline of 16.3 percent in the number of first-professional degrees earned in 1994. This decrease ended a period of steady growth, during which the number of American Indian women earning first-professional degrees doubled.

■ Only 371 American Indians earned first-professional degrees in 1994, and only 1,697 earned master's degrees that year.

DEGREES CONFERRED BY FIELD

Students of color made progress in all six major fields of study from 1993 to 1994, at both the bachelor's and master's degree levels. The largest increase at the bachelor's level, 14.3 percent, occurred in biological/life sciences (Table 15). The largest gain at the master's level was 14.6 percent in health professions (Table 16).

Minorities also achieved progress in social sciences and education; several of the ethnic minority groups posted double-digit gains in these fields between 1993 and 1994. Students of color made the greatest gains at the master's level, with one-year increases of 10.1 percent in the number of education degrees earned and 13.9 percent in the number of social sciences degrees earned. At the bachelor's level, they earned 11.3 percent more education degrees

and 8.8 percent more social science degrees in 1994 than in 1993.

The four major ethnic minority groups showed the slowest growth rate in the number of engineering degrees earned at both the bachelor's and master's levels, with increases of 3.4 percent and 7.8 percent, respectively. At the master's level, engineering was the only degree category in which minorities did not experience double-digit increases for the year.

African Americans

■ In 1994, African Americans achieved their largest increase—13 percent—in the number of education degrees earned at the bachelor's level. The 3.2 percent increase in the number of health professions degrees was the smallest gain for African Americans at this level.

■ At the bachelor's degree level, African Americans posted the smallest gains in health professions and life sciences among the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ The 2 percent decrease in the number of men earning degrees in health professions was the only decline registered by African Americans at the bachelor's level. African American men also had the only decline at the master's level, a 3.3 percent drop in the number of public affairs degrees earned.

■ In 1994, African Americans recorded a 16.5 percent increase in the number of master's degrees earned in business, the largest gain in this category among the four ethnic minority groups.

■ African Americans achieved a 7 percent increase in the number of education degrees earned at the master's level in 1994, with women accounting for much of the growth. African American women also accounted for most of the double-digit increase in the number of social science master's degrees earned.

■ In 1994, African American women registered larger increases than African American men in all master's degree categories except engineering. At the bachelor's degree level, African American women outgained African American men in all categories but social sciences.

■ For the third consecutive year, African American women earned more master's degrees in business than African American men.

Hispanics

■ Hispanics posted double-digit gains in all categories of master's degrees earned in 1994. At the bachelor's level, increases ranged from a low of 5.8 percent in engineering to a high of 15.2 percent in biological/life sciences.

■ Hispanics achieved double-digit increases for the year in the number of education degrees earned at both the bachelor's and master's levels.

■ At the bachelor's level, Hispanic men achieved larger gains than Hispanic women in the number of education, social sciences, biological/life sciences, and engineering degrees earned. A different trend was evident at the master's level, where Hispanic women posted larger increases than Hispanic men in five of six fields.

■ Hispanics recorded the highest percentage gains of the four major ethnic minority groups in social science and business degrees earned at the bachelor's level. Hispanic men and women both contributed to the 12.9 percent increase in social science degrees and the 7.1 percent increase in business degrees.

■ At the master's level, Hispanics posted the highest increases among the four major ethnic minority groups in social sciences and engineering, with one-year gains of 15.9 percent and 10.2 percent, respectively.

■ The number of Hispanic men earning master's degrees in health professions increased by 26.6 percent from 1993 to 1994. Hispanic women also achieved a large one-year increase, 20.9 percent, in the number of master's degrees earned in business.

Asian Americans

■ At the bachelor's level, Asian Americans achieved the largest gain of the four ethnic minority groups in health professions, but the lowest in education and engineering. Asian Americans recorded increases of 22.2 percent in health professions degrees, but only 2 percent and 1 percent in education and engineering, respectively.

■ A similar trend was evident at the master's level, where Asian Americans recorded the highest gain in health professions but the lowest in business, public affairs, and engineering. Asian Americans experienced gains of 16.6 percent in the number of health professions degrees earned, but only 7.5 percent, 7.5 percent, and 6.2 percent in the number of business, engineering, and public affairs degrees, respectively.

■ Asian American women showed no increase in the number of bachelor's degrees earned in engineering in 1994. However, Asian American women achieved a 14.9 percent one-year gain in the number of engineering degrees earned at the master's level.

■ At the bachelor's level, Asian American men achieved higher gains than Asian American women in business, health professions, and engineering, while Asian American women made greater gains in education, social sciences, and biological/life sciences. Asian American men also experienced a 6.3 percent decline in the number of bachelor's degrees awarded in education.

■ At the master's level, Asian American women recorded greater increases than Asian American men in the number of degrees earned in education, business, and engineering.

■ Asian American men earned 33.5 percent more master's degrees in the health professions in 1994 than in 1993. In this category, Asian American men made more progress in this one year than they had from 1985 through 1993.

American Indians

■ American Indians registered a 14.8 percent increase in the number of bachelor's degrees earned in education in 1994. Men contributed heavily to this gain, posting a one-year increase of 29.2 percent. As a result, American Indian men reversed a downward trend in the number of education degrees earned from 1985 to 1993.

■ While more American Indian men earned degrees in education, the number earning bachelor's degrees in business fell, by 10.6 percent in 1994. As a result, American Indian men show an overall decline in the number of business degrees earned during the past ten-year period.

■ The 17.2 percent increase in the number of life science degrees earned by American Indians at the bachelor's level was the largest gain among the four major ethnic minority groups. American Indian women accounted for most of this increase, posting a one-year gain of 24.5 percent.

■ After a decade of growth, American Indian women failed to post an increase in the number of social science degrees earned at the bachelor's level in 1994.

■ American Indians made the greatest progress of the four ethnic minority groups in master's degrees in education in 1994, yet the actual number of degrees they received remained relatively small compared with the number awarded to other racial and ethnic groups. The 31.8 percent gain included a 38.5 percent increase for American Indian women and a 16.9 percent increase for American Indian men.

■ American Indians registered large percentage gains in 1994 in public affairs master's degrees, but again, the total numbers remain small.

■ Only 14 American Indian women earned master's degrees in engineering in 1994; only 53 earned bachelor's degrees in engineering.

Doctoral Degrees

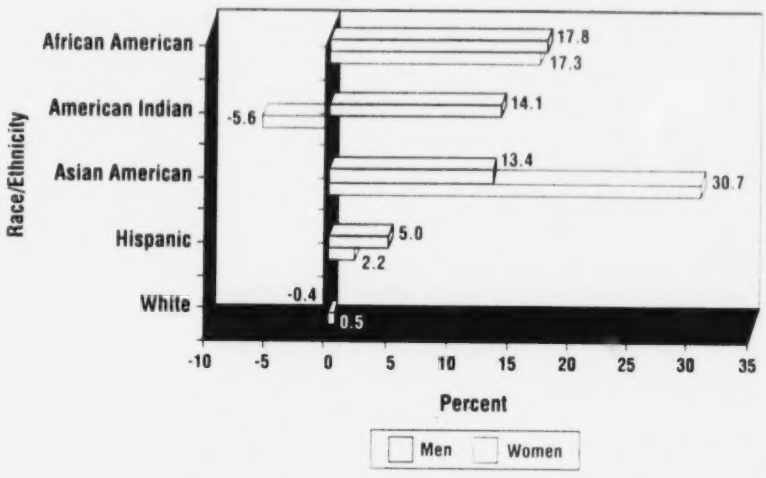
GENERAL TRENDS

The number of doctoral degrees earned by students of color increased by 13.6 percent from 1994 to 1995, continuing the steady growth achieved over the past decade (Table 17). Overall, students of color have recorded gains of 67 percent in the number of doctoral degrees earned during the most recent ten-year period.

Among all students, women continued to demonstrate more progress than men at the doctoral level. The number of women earning doctoral degrees increased by 3.3 percent from 1994 to 1995, while the number of men earning doctorates remained largely unchanged. Since 1985, the number of doctoral degrees awarded to women has increased by 52.8 percent, compared with a 23 percent increase for men. Men still earn a majority of doctoral degrees, including 60.7 percent of those awarded in 1995.The steady progress achieved by women is most evident among U.S. citizens. The number of doctoral degrees earned by male U.S. citizens increased by only 4.8 percent from 1985 to 1995, primarily because of slow growth in the population of white men. By comparison, the number of doctoral degrees earned by women increased by 38.8 percent during the decade. Women earned 2.4 percent more doctoral degrees in 1995 than in 1994, twice the rate of increase for male U.S. citizens.

The number of doctoral degrees earned by non-citizens decreased slightly in 1995, following a decade of steady increases. The primary cause was a 2.1 percent decline in the number of doctorates earned by men, who make up the majority of non-citizens receiving doctoral degrees. The number of degrees earned by non-citizen women increased by 5.3 percent in 1995, but the small numbers associated with this increase were not sufficient to offset the decline in the number of men receiving doctorates. Despite this one-year decline, the number of non-citizens earning doctorates in 1995 was more than double the number who received such degrees ten years earlier.

Figure 18
Changes in Doctoral Degrees by Race, Ethnicity, and Gender: 1994 to 1995



Source: National Research Council, Doctorate Record File, 1994 and 1995

African Americans

■ African Americans earned 17.5 percent more doctoral degrees in 1995 than in 1994. This increase reversed a slight decline in the number of doctoral degrees earned in 1994.

■ Both men and women contributed to the increase in the number of doctoral degrees earned by African Americans. The number of men earning doctoral degrees increased by 17.8 percent in 1995, a gain nearly identical to that of the 17.3 percent increase posted by African American women (Figure 18).

■ The number of doctoral degrees awarded by historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) increased by 1.5 percent in 1994, the most recent year for which data are available (Table 13).

African Americans earned 11.8 percent of their doctoral degrees from HBCUs in 1994, a rate largely unchanged from the previous year.

Hispanics

■ The 3.6 percent increase in the number of doctorates earned by Hispanics in 1995 was the smallest among the four major ethnic minority groups. However, the number of Hispanics earning doctoral degrees has increased by 63.3 percent over the past ten years.

■ Hispanic men earned more doctoral degrees than Hispanic women in 1995, reversing a trend in which women earned more degrees. The number of Hispanic men earning doctoral degrees increased by 5 percent in 1995, more than double the 2.2 percent increase for Hispanic women.

■ Hispanics earned only 4.3 percent of their doctoral degrees at Hispanic-serving institutions in 1994, the most recent year for which data are available. This rate is a slight increase from the 3.6 percent recorded in 1993.

Asian Americans

■ Asian Americans earned 19.9 percent more doctoral degrees in 1995 than in 1994, the largest one-year increase among the four major ethnic minority groups. This increase is consistent with long-term trends; the number of Asian Americans earning doctorates has more than doubled since 1985.

■ The number of doctoral degrees earned by Asian American women increased by 30.7 percent in 1995, more than double the 13.4 percent increase in the number of doctorates earned by Asian American men.

American Indians

■ American Indians earned slightly more doctoral degrees in 1995 than in 1994, primarily because of progress among men. However, the small increases of the past two years have failed to restore the number to its previous high.

■ Only 148 American Indians earned doctoral degrees in 1995. The number of American Indian women earning such degrees declined for the second time in three years.

DOCTORAL DEGREES BY FIELD

U.S. citizens achieved only moderate gains in two major fields of doctoral study in 1995. The largest increase was in engineering, where the number of degrees increased by 7.5 percent following a decline the previous year (Table 18). The number of humanities degrees awarded increased by 7.1 percent, but rate changes in physical sciences, social sciences, and life sciences all amounted to less than 1 percent. The number of doctoral degrees awarded in education decreased by 2.9 percent in 1995, the second decline in the past three years.

African Americans

■ In 1995, African Americans gained ground in all major fields except the physical sciences, where the number of doctoral degrees was unchanged.

■ African Americans experienced the largest increase, 33.6 percent, in the number of life sciences doctorates earned in 1995. The number of doctoral degrees awarded to African Americans in engineering and social sciences also increased by more than 20 percent.

Hispanics

■ Hispanics who were U.S. citizens recorded their largest percentage gains in the social sciences and engineering during 1995.

■ Hispanics earned fewer doctorates in the humanities, life sciences, and physical sciences in 1995. The largest decrease, 13.1 percent, was in the number of life sciences doctorates.

Asian Americans

■ Asian Americans posted small to moderate increases in all doctoral degree categories in 1995 except education, where the number remained constant.

■ Among the four ethnic minority groups, Asian Americans registered the largest increases in the number of physical sciences, life sciences, and humanities doctorates earned.

American Indians

■ American Indians who were U.S. citizens made gains in all doctoral degree categories in 1995 except the humanities, where they earned 17.4 percent fewer degrees.

■ American Indians earned only 11 doctoral degrees in the physical sciences and ten in engineering in 1995. Education was the most popular degree field among American Indians, with 40 doctorates earned by U.S. citizens.

College Graduation Rates

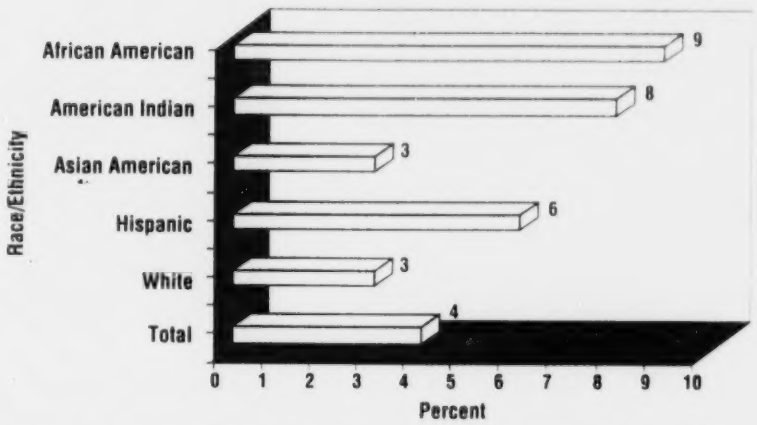
This section examines college graduation rates for African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians using 1995 data gathered by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). Division I colleges and universities gathered information in an effort to compile graduation rate data and to compare graduation rates for students and student-athletes.

Data gathered by Division I institutions and reported to the NCAA show that all four major ethnic minority groups achieved progress in completing postsecondary education from 1990 to 1995 (Table 19). Asian Americans recorded the lowest gain, 3 percentage points, while African Americans had the highest increase at 9 percentage points (Figure 19). African Americans, American Indians, and Hispanics also experienced larger gains than whites during this same period.

Overall, however, Asian Americans had the highest graduation rate of all ethnic groups, 65 percent, in 1995. White students followed, with a graduation rate of 59 percent; the rates for African Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians trailed these two groups. Graduation rates in 1995 for Hispanics, African Americans, and American Indians were 46 percent, 40 percent, and 37 percent, respectively. This gap in graduation rates has remained steady throughout the 1990s (Figure 20).

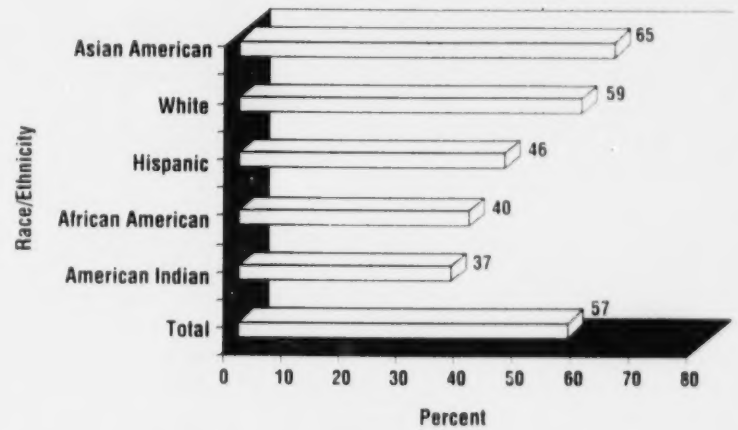
The data for this section are based on the percentage of students who graduated from college within six years of enrolling as fresh-

Figure 19
Changes in NCAA Division I Six-Year Graduation Rates: 1990 to 1995



Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. Division I Graduation Rates Reports, 1991–92 through 1996.

Figure 20
NCAA Division I Six-Year Graduation Rates: 1995



Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. Division I Graduation Rates Report, 1996.

men at four-year institutions. The most recent data are based on students who were freshmen during the 1988–89 academic year and had graduated by August 1995.

African Americans

■ The six-year graduation rate in 1995 for African Americans at Division I colleges and universities was 40 percent, an increase of 2 percentage points from 1994 and 9 percentage points since 1990.

■ In 1995, African American women continued to post higher graduation rates than African American men at NCAA Division I institutions. The graduation rate for African American women was 43 percent in 1995, compared with 35 percent for African American men.

■ The graduation rate for African American women rose by 9 percentage points between 1990 and 1995, the largest gain for women among the four major ethnic minority groups. The graduation rate for African American men was up by 7 percentage points during this same period, the second largest gain among male students of color.

■ Graduation rates for African Americans at independent Division I institutions declined slightly in 1995, falling just below the 50 percent level achieved earlier in the decade. As a result, African Americans show no progress in increasing their six-year graduation rate at independent institutions since 1990.

■ The six-year graduation rate for African Americans at public Division I institutions remains below the corresponding rate for independent institutions. In 1995, the graduation rate for African Americans at public colleges and universities was 37 percent. This rate is up by 9 percentage points since 1990.

Hispanics

■ Hispanics recorded a small increase in their graduation rate at Division I institutions, to 46 percent in 1995. Overall, the rate is up by 6 percentage points since 1990.

■ The graduation rates for Hispanic men and women increased slightly in 1995. Hispanic women recorded a 49 percent graduation rate, which was greater than the 43 percent for Hispanic men.

■ Since 1990, the graduation rate for Hispanic women has increased by 7 percentage points; the increase for Hispanic men is 5 percentage points.

■ Hispanics continue to record significantly higher graduation rates at independent Division I colleges than at public institutions. The graduation rate for Hispanics at independent institutions was 65 percent in 1995, while at public colleges and universities it was 42 percent.

■ Despite the higher graduation rates at independent institutions, Hispanics at public institutions have achieved greater percentage gains since 1990. The proportion of Hispanics graduating from public Division I institutions has increased by 7 percentage points since 1990, compared with 1 percentage point at independent colleges and universities.

Asian Americans

■ In 1995, Asian Americans achieved a 65 percent graduation rate at Division I institutions, the highest among the four major ethnic minority groups. This figure exceeded the graduation rate for whites as well.

■ Asian American women had the highest six-year graduation rate of any group in 1995, at 69 percent. This rate was up 5 percentage points since 1990.

■ The graduation rate for Asian American men was 62 percent in 1995, the highest rate among males in the ethnic groups surveyed. Since 1990, however, the graduation rate for Asian American men is up by only 2 percentage points, the smallest increase among all major groups, including whites.

■ Asian Americans made progress at both public and independent Division I institutions in 1995, where their graduation rates were 61 percent and 77 percent, respectively.

American Indians

■ The 37 percent graduation rate for American Indians at Division I colleges and universities was the lowest among the four major ethnic minority groups in 1995. The rate was unchanged from 1994, although American Indians have made gains of 8 percentage points since 1990.

■ The graduation rate for American Indian women declined from 40 percent to 38 percent in 1995, ending a period of moderate gains. However, American Indian women still show an increase of 7 percentage points since 1990.

■ American Indian men achieved an increase of 3 percentage points in their graduation rate in 1995, bringing the rate to 37 percent. As a result, American Indian men show a total increase of 9 percentage points since 1990, which is equalled only by that for African American women.

■ American Indians increased their graduation rate at public Division I institutions, but lost ground at independent institutions in 1995. The graduation rate at public institutions increased slightly, to 35 percent, while the rate at independent colleges and universities fell from 58 percent to 56 percent. The graduation rate for American Indians at public institutions was the lowest among the four ethnic minority groups.

Employment in Higher Education

Last year's *Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education* documented significant increases in the number of faculty of color in the United States since the mid-1980s. As shown in Table 20 of this report, the number of full-time faculty of color increased by 43.7 percent from 1983 to 1993, compared with a 6.4 percent increase for whites, based on employment and faculty surveys by the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). All four major ethnic minority groups achieved double-digit increases at the full professor level between 1991 and 1993, reversing an earlier trend in which the largest increases were at the assistant professor and instructor levels. Despite these gains, persons of color remain severely underrepresented among college and university faculty. They accounted for only 12.2 percent of all full-time faculty and for just 9.2 percent of full professors in 1993.

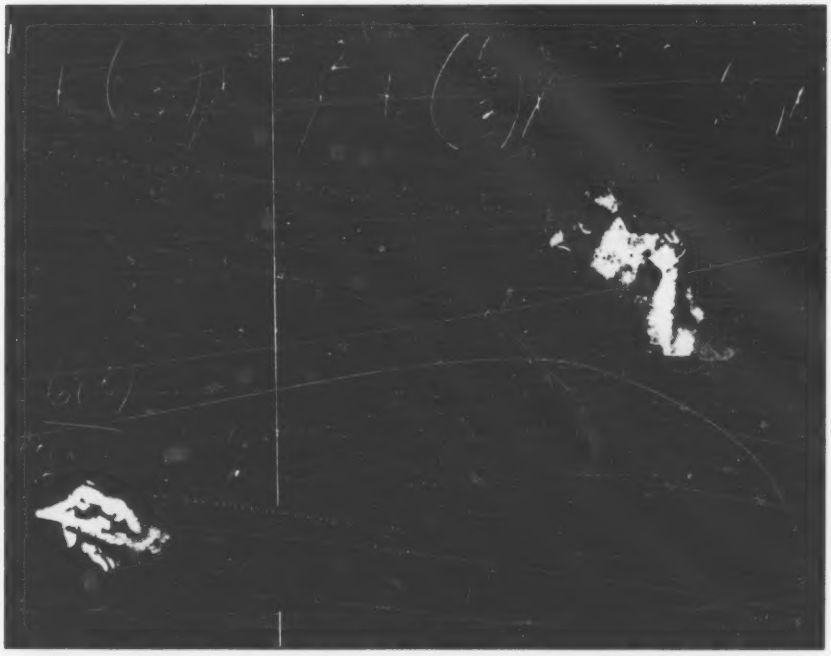


Photo Credit: St. Louis Community College

Although the 1993 EEOC employment data are included in Tables 20 and 21, this report relies on a different data set to analyze employment and tenure trends for faculty of color. Unlike the EEOC, which biannually reports the number of faculty and administrators in the United States by race and ethnicity, the faculty surveys of the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) at the University of California, Los Angeles, examine key characteristics and attitudes of higher education faculty. The HERI surveys measure the percentages of minority faculty at all levels, from full professor through instructor, and include data on fields of concentration. The surveys also provide information on the tenure rates of all full-time undergraduate faculty, whereas the EEOC tenure rates that appear in Table 21 of this report are only for full-time faculty who are on a tenure track. These differences, in addition to the fact that tenure rates reported in the HERI survey pertain only to faculty with undergraduate teaching responsibilities, result in significant variance in the tenure rates reported in the two surveys (the EEOC rates are higher).

The data contain tabulations for all four major ethnic minority groups. The HERI research also disaggregates data for Hispanics by using Chicano, Puerto Rican, and other Latino faculty classifications.

GENERAL TRENDS

Data from the latest HERI Faculty Survey show that one-third of all full-time undergraduate faculty were full professors in the 1995–96 academic year. Approximately 34.6 percent of all white faculty were full professors, the highest proportion for any group in the survey. Only 23 percent of faculty of color had attained full professor status. Faculty of color in this survey were most likely to serve at the assistant professor level.

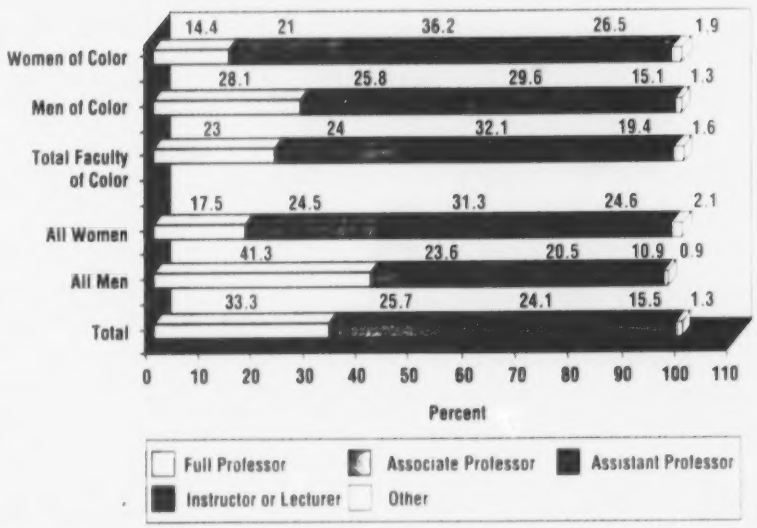
More than 40 percent of all male faculty members held the rank of full professor in the 1995–96 academic year. This rate was more than double the 17.5 percent of female faculty who had attained this position. Among whites, 42.9 percent of men and 17.9 percent of women were full professors (Figure 21, next page). A similar trend was evident among faculty of color: 28 percent of men had achieved full professor status, compared with only 14.4 percent of women (Table 22). During the 1995–96 academic year, 36.2 percent of minority women faculty served at the assistant professor level. The figure for men of color was 29.6 percent.

The HERI data indicate that tenure rates for full-time undergraduate faculty fell for both whites and people of color between 1989–90 and 1995–96. The rates for minority undergraduate faculty declined the most—from 59.4 percent in 1989–90 to 47.5 percent in 1995–96 (Table 23). Tenure rates for white faculty dropped by seven percentage points, to 60.7 percent in 1995–96. As a result of these changes, the gap in tenure rates between white faculty and faculty of color increased.

Tenure rates for both men and women of color also declined. Approximately 51.3 percent of minority men were tenured in 1995–96, down from 62.7 percent in 1989–90. The tenure rate for women of color declined from 53.5 percent to 41.4 percent during this period.

Both minority and white faculty were most likely to work in social sciences, HERI data indicate. Most minority men also worked in the social sciences, while English and humanities were the two most popular fields for women of color.

Figure 21
Distribution of Undergraduate Full-Time Faculty by Minority Status and Gender: 1995 to 1996



Source: Higher Education Research Institute. Astin, H.S., et al. *Race and Ethnicity in the American Professoriate, 1995–96*

African Americans

■ Nearly two-thirds of African American full-time faculty served at the associate professor or assistant professor levels during the 1995–96 academic year (Table 22). Only 17.8 percent had achieved full professor status, and 15.6 percent served as instructors.

■ African Americans trailed Asian Americans and American Indians in the percentage of faculty who served as full professors in 1995–96. The percentage of African American associate professors was the highest among the four major ethnic minority groups, however.

■ Only 16.9 percent of African American male faculty had achieved full professor status by 1995–96, the lowest rate among men in the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ Nineteen percent of African American female faculty had attained full professor status by 1995–96, the highest rate among women in the four ethnic minority groups. Nonetheless, African American females were most likely to serve at the assistant professor level.

■ Tenure rates for African American full-time undergraduate faculty dropped by more than ten percentage points from 1989–90 to 1995–96 (Table 23). The 42.9 percent tenure rate for African Americans in 1995–96 was the lowest among the four ethnic minority groups.

■ A higher percentage of African American women than African American men had

tenure in 1995–96. The tenure rate for African American men fell sharply, from 56.5 percent in 1989–90 to 40 percent in 1995–96. African American women experienced a smaller decline, from 51 percent to 46.2 percent, during the same period.

■ As shown in Table 24, approximately 40 percent of African American faculty served in the social sciences, English, or education. Approximately 16.5 percent worked in social sciences, while 12 percent taught English and 10.7 percent specialized in education. Only 1.9 percent were in the physical sciences.

■ Social science was the most popular field among African American men, followed closely by education, fine arts, and history/political science. English was the most popular field for African American women, accounting for 21 percent of all African American female faculty. More than 17 percent of African American women worked in the social sciences, while 14.8 percent served in health professions.

Hispanics

■ Approximately 60 percent of Hispanic faculty served as assistant professors during the 1995–96 school year (Table 22). Only 18.4 percent were associate professors, and 17.3 percent had attained the rank of full professor.

■ Hispanic men were much more likely than Hispanic women to achieve full professor or associate professor status. During the 1995–96 academic year, only 8.5 percent of Hispanic female faculty worked as full professors, compared with 23.7 percent of Hispanic men. The same year, 20.3 percent of Hispanic men served as associate professors, a rate greater than the 15.8 percent for Hispanic women.

■ Chicano and Puerto Rican faculty were much less likely than other Latinos to hold full professor status. In 1995–96, 14.7 percent of Chicano and 10.9 percent of Puerto Rican faculty served as full professors. The rate for other Latino faculty was 22.5 percent.

■ Latino faculty who were not Chicano or Puerto Rican also had greater representation at the associate professor level. During 1995–96, 13.7 percent of Chicano and 19.1 percent of Puerto Rican faculty served as associate professors. Among other Latinos, however, the rate was 24.1 percent.

■ Most Chicano faculty are employed at the instructor level. Overall, 40.6 percent of Chicano faculty served as instructors in 1995–96, compared with 21.8 percent of Puerto Rican and 12.3 percent of other Latino faculty.

■ Among Puerto Rican faculty, 42.7 percent were employed at the assistant professor level in 1995–96, the highest concentration among ethnic minority groups.

■ Gender differences in faculty attainment are evident for both Chicanos and Puerto Ricans. Among Chicano men, 20.4 percent had achieved full professor status by the 1995–96 academic year, more than triple the 6.7 percent rate for Chicano women. Only 7.2 percent of Puerto Rican female faculty had achieved full professor status, whereas 14.7 percent of Puerto Rican males had done so.

■ The tenure rate for Hispanic full-time undergraduate faculty declined from 63.1 percent in 1989–90 to 44.4 percent in 1995–96 (Table 23). This drop of nearly 19 percentage points was the largest among the survey groups.

■ Hispanic men had a higher tenure rate than Hispanic women in 1995–96, a trend also evident in 1989–90. In 1995–96, 49.5 percent of Hispanic men and 37.6 percent of Hispanic women had tenure.

■ Puerto Rican faculty had a much lower tenure rate than Chicano faculty and faculty from other Latino groups. Among Puerto Rican faculty, 33.9 percent had tenure in 1995–96, compared with 45 percent of Chicano and 47 percent of other Latino faculty.

■ Men accounted for most of the disparities in tenure rates among Latino groups in 1995–96. Only 29.5 percent of Puerto Rican male faculty had tenure, compared with 50 percent of Chicano men and 54.6 percent of other Latino men. Among women, however, tenure rates were similar among the three Hispanic groups.

■ Twenty-one percent of Hispanic faculty worked in the humanities, by far the highest concentration in one area among the four major ethnic groups (Table 24). Among Hispanic women, 28.5 percent worked in the humanities.

■ Most Puerto Rican and other Latino faculty were employed in the humanities, while Chicano faculty were employed primarily in English, the social sciences, and humanities.

Asian Americans

■ In 1995–96, 31.1 percent of Asian American faculty served as full professors, the highest rate among the four major ethnic minority groups (Table 22).

■ Only 8.2 percent of Asian American faculty worked at the instructor level

in 1995–96, a rate far below those for African Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians.

■ Asian American men were more likely to attain full professor status than Asian American women. In 1995–96, 36 percent of Asian American men were full professors, compared with only 18 percent of Asian American women. Asian American women were nearly three times as likely as Asian American men to work at the instructor level that year.

■ As shown in Table 23, tenure rates for full-time undergraduate faculty declined for Asian Americans from 1989–90 to 1995–96. The 52.6 percent rate registered in 1995–96 represented a drop of 12 percentage points in a six-year period. Nonetheless, Asian Americans had the highest tenure rate in 1995–96 of the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ Asian American women suffered much larger declines in tenure rates than Asian American men between 1989–90 and 1995–96, resulting in a significant gender gap. Among Asian American men, 57.2 percent of faculty had achieved tenure in 1995–96; among Asian American women, the rate was much lower, at 40.5 percent. This represents a dramatic change since 1989–90, when Asian American men and women posted similar tenure rates.

■ Mathematics/statistics was the most popular field among Asian American faculty, followed by the physical sciences (Table 24). Together, these two categories accounted for 25 percent of Asian American faculty appointments.

Photo Credit: Stillman College

■ More than half of all Asian American male faculty were employed in mathematics, the physical sciences, engineering, or business in 1995–96. Asian American women had more diverse appointments, with 13.2 percent in humanities, 10.1 percent in mathematics, and the remainder working in 11 other fields.

American Indians

■ Though they account for a small number of college faculty, American Indians have made inroads at the professor level (Table 22). In 1995–96, 24.6 percent of American Indian faculty served as full professors, a rate second only to Asian Americans among the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ Nearly half of all American Indian faculty worked at the professor and associate professor levels in 1995–96. Only 26.1 percent of American Indian faculty served as assistant professors, the lowest rate among the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ American Indian men were much more likely than American Indian women to attain full professor status. In 1995–96, 32.8 percent of American Indian men served as full professors, compared with only 11.5 percent of American Indian female faculty.

■ More than a third of all American Indian female faculty work as lecturers. The rate of 36.7 percent was the largest of the four major ethnic minority groups.

■ Slightly more than half of American Indian faculty (51.1 percent) had tenure in 1995–96 (Table 23). This rate trailed that for Asian Americans but surpassed those for African Americans and Hispanics.

■ A significant gender gap in tenure existed for American Indian faculty in 1995–96. The tenure rate for American Indian men was 57.7 percent, compared with 40.9 percent for American Indian women.

■ Social sciences and fine arts were the two most popular fields among American Indian faculty, with appointment rates of 12.8 percent and 12.6 percent, respectively (Table 24). Education and English each attracted about 11 percent of American Indian faculty.

■ American Indian men were concentrated most heavily in the social sciences, while the most popular fields for American Indian women were education and other non-technical fields.

Innovative Partnerships

Building Momentum Behind the Trends

In 1988, the Commission on Minority Participation in Education and American Life reported solid gains for minorities in education and called on the private sector to help drive the momentum behind minority progress:

We challenge private and voluntary organizations to initiate new and expand existing programs designed to increase minority participation and achievement. Businesses...foundations, community organizations, civic associations—the vast network of private and voluntary institutions that compose the fabric of American society—must increase the energy and resources they devote to minority progress.

Across America, community groups and businesses are responding to that challenge. As an example, in 1989, The Coca-Cola Foundation announced a $50 million commitment to advance excellence in education in the 1990s. Since 1990, The Coca-Cola Foundation has awarded grants to more than 400 schools, universities, and associations, as well as more than 2,500 scholarships; two-thirds of those scholarships have been awarded to students of color.

By focusing on innovative programs that work, the Foundation and its higher education partners help improve access for minority students. Such programs address critical issues outlined in the American Council on Education's *Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education*—including high school completion, college participation and enrollment, and degrees conferred.

IMPROVING HIGH SCHOOL COMPLETION

The Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program is a national tutoring program that identifies potential middle and high school dropouts and pairs them as tutors and role models with younger students also struggling in school. Supported by a $2 million grant, this program has helped Valued Youth tutors—mostly African American and Hispanic students—improve their academic performance and school attendance and advance to higher education.

Results: For more than a decade, the program has maintained a less than 2 percent high school dropout rate for its participants, compared with double-digit national dropout rates and a nearly 40 percent dropout rate in Texas, where the program began.

STRENGTHENING COLLEGE PARTICIPATION AND ENROLLMENT

Spelman College has developed a cadre of its students to serve as role models and tutors for young African American women in Atlanta's public high schools. The program covers the cost of college visits, admissions testing, and application fees for high school students.

Results: Spelman reports that 100 percent of students in the program went on to college, and 20 percent were recruited for scholarships to Spelman.

DePaul University in Chicago has created a pre-college enrichment program, STEP (Students, Teachers, Educators, and Parents), to help prepare more students for college and to encourage them to pursue careers in math and science.

Results: DePaul University used its grant to double the size of the program. Over the last 14 years, 95 percent of STEP students pursued higher education, attending such institutions as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Brown University, Princeton University, and DePaul University.

INCREASING DEGREES CONFERRED

Tennessee State University (TSU) and The Coca-Cola Foundation have partnered to help address the shortage of minority teachers in the state by establishing a scholarship fund for minority students, teachers, and teacher's aides who can pursue an advanced degree in TSU's Minority Teacher Education Program.

Results: Tennessee State University reports that 90 percent of the program's participants have become teachers in Tennessee's public school system.

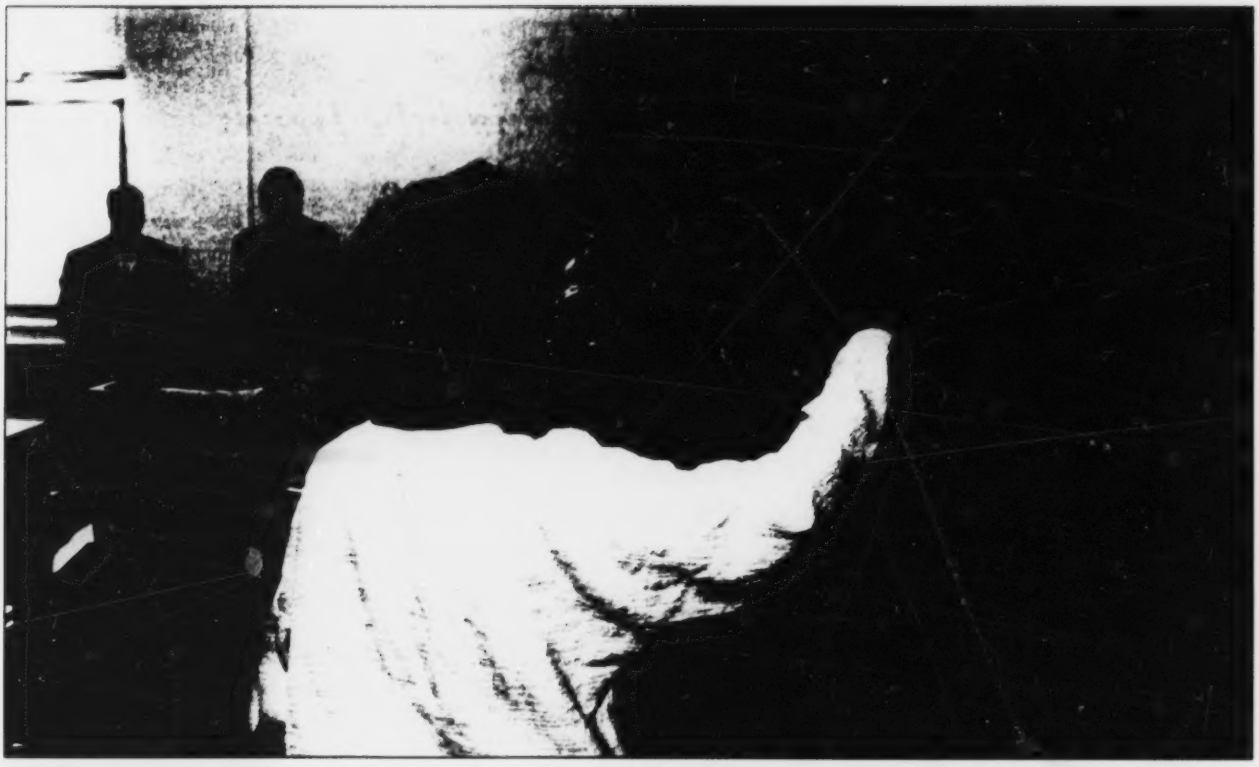


Photo Credit: DePaul University

Florida Institute of Technology is increasing the number of minority students who pursue engineering degrees by awarding scholarships to freshmen and sophomores and by guiding them through the rigorous math and science requirements. Forty percent of the students are Asian American.

Results: One hundred percent of the students have remained in the program and are on track to receive engineering degrees.

IMPROVING ACCESS FOR ALL STUDENTS

More than 60 percent of grants awarded by The Coca-Cola Foundation support higher education initiatives, with more than half of that support designated to expand minority education programs and scholarships. Since 1990, the Foundation has awarded more than $5 million in scholarships to more than 1,700 students of color.

■ In addition, $2 million supports scholarships at all 41 member institutions of the United Negro College Fund.

■ More than $1.5 million was contributed to scholarships and programs for Hispanic students in partnership with the National Council of La Raza, the University of Puerto Rico, the Hispanic Educational Fund, National Hispanic University, and others.

■ More than $1 million funded scholarships for American Indian students through the American Indian College Fund and initiatives at Oklahoma City University, Rogers College, and the University of Tulsa. Grants also support intertribal college preparation workshops through Futures for Children in Albuquerque.

As the Commission's report concludes, there still is work to be done. But partnerships between the private sector and the education community continue to reach out to one student, one teacher, one classroom at a time.

SPECIAL FOCUS:
Asian Pacific American Demographic and Educational Trends

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Kenyon S. Chan, California State University, Northridge

The authors of the Special Focus wish to thank the following individuals for their assistance: James Allen, Sumi Cho, Daniel Gumarang, Aida Hurtado, John Liu, Barbara Martin, Antoinette Charfauros McDaniel, Daniel Solorzano, Rena Subotnik, Sau-Lim Tsang, and Jim Turner. Special thanks to Deborah Carter, the ACE staff, and the ACE reviewers.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this special focus on Asian Pacific Americans (APAs) is to provide an in-depth analysis of the presence, progress, and complex outcomes of Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders in American education. Too often, APAs are left out of the discourse on race and education. First, studies omit APAs because the racial experience in the United States is interpreted primarily in a black/white[2] framework and neglects other racial and ethnic groups. Second, APAs frequently are perceived as foreigners or permanent immigrants rather than as an American racial minority with a long educational history in the United States. Third, APAs are excluded from the racial discourse on education because, it is argued, they are a "model minority" not in need of attention from educators. When APAs *are* included, it is to emphasize their "success story" and to reaffirm inferred cultural explanations for their educational attainment.[3]

This special focus seeks to give educators and policy makers a more informed, comprehensive, and balanced view of Asian Pacific American education. It is concerned with the education of native-born and foreign-born Americans of Asian and Pacific Islander descent, *not* with international students from Asia and the Pacific Rim. The analysis is presented in three parts. Part I is an overview of Asian Pacific Americans. It includes discussion of how APAs are defined, as well as the implications of that definition, a brief history of APAs, highlights of their struggles for educational rights, access, and equity, and a critique of the "model minority" stereotype. Cultural explanations of APA education are challenged, and alternative interpretations to better explain APA educational persistence and choices are offered.

Part II provides statistics on APAs and examines their demographic and educational trends, focusing especially on continuity and change over time. It begins with a profile of APAs in 1990 and their demographic, family and household, housing, income, and occupational characteristics. It is followed by educational data and discussions on APA attainment; particular attention is given to their opportunities and barriers in the higher education pipeline and in higher education employment. Analyses of similarities and differences between APA men and women, within and among APA ethnic groups, and between APAs and other racial/ethnic groups also are provided.

Part III consists of conclusions and recommendations for colleges and universities. Specific issues that confront APAs in achieving educational access and equity include the implications of the "model minority" stereotype, affirmative action, campus climate, English language proficiency, curriculum reform, high-risk APAs, the APA gender gap, the pipeline for APA doctoral students, faculty, and administrators, and research on APAs. Overall, this special focus seeks to support institutions of higher education in better serving APAs, one of the nation's fastest growing and most diverse racial/ethnic groups.

PART I: OVERVIEW
Defining Asian Pacific Americans: The Implications

Asian Pacific Americans are persons who call the United States their home and trace their ancestry to countries from the Asian continent and subcontinent and islands within the Pacific Rim. They are a fluid, expansive, and complex population. Defining them is not easy. Yet how APAs are defined has important implications for data collection, research, and policy making.

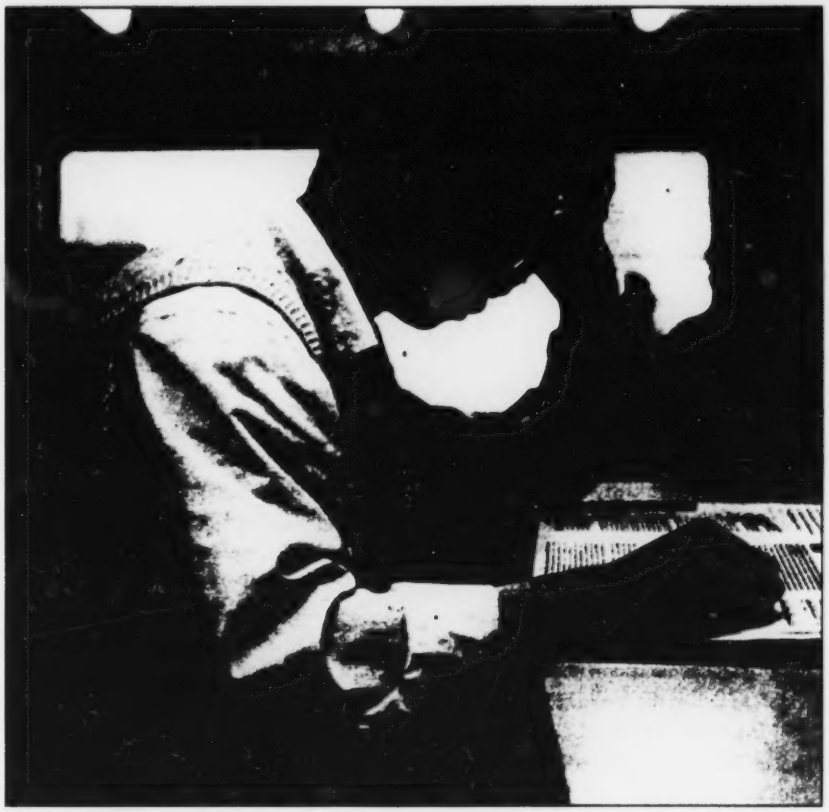


Photo Credit: LaGuardia Community College

The terminology "Asian American" first was introduced in the late 1960s as a self-definition. It was college activists, then mostly Chinese and Japanese Americans, who rejected the imposed, derogatory label "Oriental" and renamed themselves "Asian American." They formed pan-Asian organizations and joined other minority groups to oppose racism, develop their communities, and gain equity in education and other areas of American life.[4] As large numbers of Filipinos, Koreans, Asian Indians, Vietnamese, Cambodians, and Laotians settled in the United States after 1965, and as some Pacific Islanders moved to the mainland, the definition of "Asian American" grew in complexity and evolved in response to these social changes.

Local and institutional definitions also confound the term "Asian American." The Portland, Oregon, public schools, for example, consider "West Asians" to be within the Asian American category and are incorporating their histories and cultures with those of East, South, and Southeast Asians into a new Asian American curriculum guide.[5] Many institutions confuse APAs with international students from Asia and the Pacific Rim and may combine their data, thereby misrepresenting APAs. Thus, while mainstream America has adopted "Asian American" as a racial category, who is defined as Asian American is inconsistent, situational, and sometimes political, creating difficulties for researchers, policy makers, and Asian Americans themselves. Pacific Islanders often are included by subsuming them within the Asian American terminology or by expanding the nomenclature to Asian Pacific Americans (APAs) or to Asians or Pacific Islanders (APIs), which is the United States Census classification. At other times, Pacific Islanders are identified separately. They themselves are diverse in language and culture and include Hawaiians, Samoans, Guamanians, Tongans, and others. They are Polynesians, Micronesians, and Melanesians, not Asians. Native Hawaiians also are indigenous peoples, like American Indians; they are not immigrants to America.[6] In addition, intermarriage among APAs has increased. The growing numbers of racially mixed people with Asian and/or Pacific Islander heritage has expanded further the definition of APA.[7]

The inclusion and definition of APAs as a classification in government statistics has been contentious. United States Census statistics are a critical tool for the protection of voting rights and the allocation of public funding and services. From 1870 to 1970, government officials determined how APAs were represented in the decennial census and listed a few APA groups under a "color" category.

Since the 1970s, APA organizations have challenged inadequacies and inconsistencies in the Census that weakened their representation by undercounting and failing to enumerate the many APA groups. They successfully lobbied the Census Bureau for separate ethnic listings, and nine APA groups were enumerated in the 1980 and 1990 Censuses. In the 1990 Census, the Census Bureau also included a write-in space, "Other API," which enumerated additional groups and helped provide a more accurate compilation of APAs.[8] The debate over APA classification and enumeration continues in preparation for the

2000 Census. APA ethnic groups continue to argue that while they often are treated interchangeably by the general population and by American institutions, they are not all the same. A single APA category is limiting, and attention must be given to the distinct groups that fall under the APA umbrella.

Most often, data on APAs tend to be aggregated. Combining findings on all APAs homogenizes statistics on individuals and groups who often differ widely on such dimensions as English language proficiency, education, and income; it conceals complexities and differences in the lives of distinct APA groups. The result is a portrait of the "average" Asian American or Pacific Islander that does not resemble any real person or group. Policies and programs directed at APAs may be inadequate or inappropriate because they do not meet the needs of real individuals and situations. Disaggregating APA data by ethnic group uncovers important variabilities *within* and *between* groups. Defining APAs as distinct groups within a summary category and collecting both aggregate and individual group data will ensure a more complete and balanced analysis of their educational status. Where possible, separate and aggregate group data are provided in this study to present a more meaningful profile of APAs in the 1990s.

The term "Asian Pacific American" is used here to refer to *both* Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders. "Asian American" remains common usage, but Asian Pacific American is more inclusive. Where pertinent and possible, Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders are discussed separately, and the distinction between the groups is made.

BRIEF HISTORY

Some Asian Pacific Americans are indigenous to what is now the United States, many have over a century of history in America, and others have arrived since 1965. The first Asian arrivals included Filipino crewmen sent to Mexico on Spanish ships; many of these Filipinos settled in Louisiana around 1763. Of the two large-scale waves of immigration from Asia and the Pacific Rim, the first began in the 1840s and continued until 1930. Chinese, Japanese, and then smaller numbers of Filipinos, Koreans, and Asian Indians immigrated to work in the new western territories and Hawaii. Like their European American counterparts, most were peasants or were from the urban skilled class. APAs had a significant role in the development of the West and Hawaii—a role that far exceeded what one might expect given the size of their population.

The begrudging reception[9] the first wave of Asians faced in America turned to overt discrimination when they came to be viewed as economic competitors. They endured limited employment opportunities, low wages, segregated housing, racial attacks, and unprecedented, harsh immigration laws from 1875 through 1965; these laws severely restricted Asian immigration to the United States. Racial animosity climaxed in the internment of persons of Japanese descent during World War II, two-thirds of whom were United States citizens. Declared "aliens" because of their race, APAs had minimal civil rights for almost a century. Chinese Americans were not eligible for citizenship through naturalization until 1943, and Japanese Americans were ineligible until 1952.

American-born APAs from the 1920s through the 1950s participated in mainstream American life but largely were residentially segregated. Their economic options were limited to their ethnic communities and to ethnic niches, such as restaurants and laundries. It was not until World War II and the growth of the defense industry that APAs gained access to a wider range of occupations, including work as scientists and engineers in the post-Sputnik era.[10]

The second large-scale immigration wave began after 1965 and continues to the present. Largely an outcome of immigration reform and U.S.'s involvement in wars in Southeast Asia, it has transformed long-established APA communities and American institutions (especially education). The 1965 Immigration Act replaced discriminatory national origin quotas with a visa allocation system based on preferences. Preferences supporting family reunification enabled APAs to rejoin family members in the United States.[11] One preference opened the door to professionals, scientists, and artists of "exceptional ability," specifically APA nurses, physicians, engineers, and scientists. From 1972 through 1988, 200,000 highly educated Asians came to the United States.[12] Many medical professionals were recruited specifically by hospitals. Another preference sought out workers for jobs for which there were labor shortages in the United States and facilitated the entry of less-educated APAs for service positions, such as restaurant and garment workers.[13]

More than 1 million Southeast Asians also arrived between 1975 and 1990. The 1975 Indochina Migration and Refugee Assistance Act, the 1980 Refugee Act, and related acts helped resettle Vietnamese, Cambodians, Hmong, and Laotians displaced from their war-torn countries.[14]

Native Hawaiians, American Samoans, and Guamanians, on the other hand, are the three largest groups among Pacific Islanders, and they share a colonial and neo-colonial relationship with the United States dating from 1897–1898. They and other Pacific Islanders are being drawn to the continental United States for education and employment and are contributing to the new APA diversity.[15]

As a result of all of these factors, the APA population has grown significantly over the past three decades, from 877,934 in 1960 to 7.3 million in 1990, or from 0.5 percent to 2.9 percent of the total United States population. It has become immensely varied in terms of national origin, language, religion, life experience, education, and social class background. Refugees have faced challenges significantly different from those encountered by immigrant APAs and those who are several generations American-born. These different individual and group experiences are reflected in the varied educational aspirations and attainment of Asian Pacific Americans.[16]

The second wave of APA immigrants and refugees has met a different reception in the United States. Their settlement has coincided with civil rights legislation and an increase in the number of American-born APAs, many of whom are advocates for APA concerns. It also has coincided with global economic restructuring and related demands for high technology and information skills, a decline in the number of industrial jobs, massive corporate downsizing, the search for cheap labor for low-paying service jobs, and a widening gap between the rich and the poor.[17] These changes have contributed to anti-immigrant activities and increased economic insecurity for most Americans, and they have made college credentials even more critical for economic survival and mobility. Yet they also have brought new opportunities and barriers for APAs.

The removal of legal discrimination has not eliminated biases. APAs continue to have civil rights concerns, especially in the areas of access to health care, political and media representation, and police/community relations, as well as in education and employment.[18] APA women also must contend with sex discrimination. A rise in racial violence against APAs has required investigation by the U.S. Office of Civil Rights.[19] The U.S. Department of Labor's Glass Ceiling Commission and other studies have documented the slower rate of APA career advancement compared with white males with similar training, as well as the lack of APAs in the upper levels of college and university administration, the professions, the corporate world, and government.[20] It is clear that APAs continue to confront obstacles in their search for equity, regardless of their educational achievement.

THE STRUGGLE FOR EDUCATIONAL RIGHTS, DESEGREGATION, AND EQUITY

Like other racial/ethnic groups in the United States, Asian Pacific Americans have a history of denied access to public schooling, segregated schooling, and inequality in education. APAs have challenged their unequal treatment in public forums and in the courts. Several significant cases and events are highlighted here.

The APA struggle for educational rights began with their initial settlement in America. Chinese parents in San Francisco had to petition the school board for their children's education. A small but separate school was opened in 1859 and subsequently was closed by the school superintendent, who claimed there were too few students. In the 1870s, Chinese parents again petitioned the school board and the California state legislature, pointing out the injustice of paying taxes to support public education while their children were denied access because of race. Their pleas were ignored.[21]

In a case that reached the California State Supreme Court, Mary and Joseph Tape disputed the San Francisco school board's decision in 1884 to deny their American-born daughter the right to a public education because of her Chinese heritage. When the court agreed that Chinese American students had a right to an education, the school board resisted and set up separate facilities for "Mongolians" so as to avoid "race mixing"; the board established the "Oriental School" in San Francisco in 1885.[22]

The schooling of 93 Japanese and Korean immigrants became an international issue in 1905, after Japan protested the San Francisco school board's decision to have them attend the "Oriental School." Only after President Theodore Roosevelt negotiated a Gentlemen's Agreement in 1908, whereby Japan restricted the emigration of its laboring class to the United States, did the school board permit Japanese students to enroll in public schools established for whites. International and federal interventions and a new diplomatic agreement were responsible for desegregating schools for Japanese students in San Francisco.[23]

While the 1954 *Brown* v. *Board of Education* Supreme Court decision remains the landmark case for school desegregation, APAs also have contested the legality of segregated schools. Efforts by Chinese Americans to end school segregation in the

early 1900s failed in San Francisco when a federal court based its ruling on the "separate but equal" doctrine drawn from *Plessy* v. *Ferguson*, an 1896 Supreme Court decision. In affirming that separate facilities for blacks and whites were permissible as long as they were equal (though in practice they never were), *Plessy* v. *Ferguson* helped legitimize a system of institutionalized racism and legalized segregation in America that was extended to other minority racial groups.[24]

Another test case arose in the Mississippi Delta, where Chinese Americans, brought there to work as sharecroppers in the 1870s, found themselves in a rigid hierarchical racial order between blacks and whites.[25] Gong Lum sought to have his daughter, Martha, enrolled in a white school in 1924 and pursued the matter until his case reached the U.S. Supreme Court. The court, basing its ruling on *Plessy* v. *Ferguson*, ignored the violation of the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment and upheld the Mississippi court decision that only Caucasians could attend white schools. The 1927 *Gong Lum* v. *Rice* ruling concluded that because no public schools for "Mongolians" existed in Mississippi and because Chinese Americans could attend a "colored" school, Martha Lum was not being denied an education.[26]

Some APA students did enroll in schools with whites and other students because few communities were willing to fund separate schools. However, some continued to attend segregated schools in parts of California until the 1930s and in Mississippi until 1950.[27]

Asian Pacific Americans have had a historic role in expanding equal and high-quality education for all Americans. Chinese Americans in San Francisco filed a class action suit in federal court in 1970, arguing that schools were ill equipped to educate limited-English proficient students. In the landmark 1974 *Lau* v. *Nichols* decision, the U.S. Supreme Court redefined educational access and equity and called for new remedies. These have included bilingual programs, teachers, and teacher assistants. This decision has benefited all immigrant and non-English speaking groups.[28]

Photo Credit: State University of New York at Binghamton

APAs have struggled for equal treatment in higher education. Students demonstrated on university campuses during the late 1960s and early 1970s to demand increased access, more minority faculty, and curriculum reform, particularly the establishment of Asian American studies and other ethnic studies programs.[29] Higher education's failure to respond to APA demands led to more student activism at Hunter College, Northwestern University, Columbia University, The University of California, Irvine, and other institutions during the 1980s and 1990s. On some campuses, students staged hunger strikes and sit-ins to have their educational concerns met.

APAs have challenged unequal treatment in student admissions. In examining the policies and practices of higher education institutions in the 1980s, including those of Brown, Harvard, Princeton, Stanford, The University of California, Berkeley, and UCLA, APAs noted that their admission rate (i.e., the ratio of students admitted relative to the total number of applicants) was not commensurate with the growth in the number of student applications; their conclusion was that institutions were setting "quotas" on APA enrollment.[30]

Investigations revealed that some universities required APAs to have higher academic qualifications than other students for admission. Others added supplemental and often subjective criteria to their admissions standards or reweighted criteria in a manner that negatively affected APA students. Underlying these actions was the argument that Asian Americans were "overrepresented." Brown University admitted bias in its admissions procedures and revised its

practices. Harvard University defended its practice of giving preference to children of alumni and to recruited athletes, few of whom were APAs; the natural result was lower admission rates for APA applicants than for whites.[51] APAs continue to question the "shifting sands" of admissions policies, including efforts to eliminate affirmative action. They also have challenged notions of "overrepresentation" and "parity" and how the concepts are applied in decisions that discriminate against APAs.[52]

Asian Pacific Americans have opposed inequities in higher education employment. One recent case that reached the U.S. Supreme Court has changed academic procedures. Dr. Rosalie Tung, a nationally recognized scholar and faculty member in the University of Pennsylvania Wharton School of Business, was turned down for tenure in 1984. She filed a complaint with the university grievance commission, which found that Tung had been discriminated against, and also with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), alleging race, sex, and national origin discrimination in her tenure review. Her case also involved *quid pro quo* sexual harassment on the part of her department chair, who deliberately solicited negative letters for her dossier.[53]

In its 1990 *University of Pennsylvania* v. *Equal Employment Opportunity Commission* ruling, the U.S. Supreme Court established an important precedent in academic employment: It ruled that the university had to disclose confidential tenure materials (files of the complainant and other faculty for "comparability") to the EEOC as part of its investigation of employment discrimination charges. While secrecy and closed meetings still surround promotion and tenure decisions, the court ruling has forced universities to adopt a more open, impartial, and consistent review process that has benefited all faculty. One outcome is that the number of faculty filing tenure and promotion grievances has increased.[54]

APA students' current strivings and their families' sacrifices in support of education are continuations of the population's historic efforts to achieve equity. These efforts have been complicated by a powerful public image of APAs as a "model minority" group. This image contends that all APAs are "successful" and that they have no need for remedies.

Demythologizing the "Model Minority" Stereotype

Asian Pacific American students are perceived as well-behaved, diligent high achievers who persevere and are educationally successful despite socioeconomic and linguistic obstacles. They also are perceived as being less "well-rounded" than the ideal student: they are believed to make "narrow" academic choices, focusing primarily on mathematics, the sciences, and engineering. This oversimplified profile of APA students as "whiz kids" with limited interests reinforces the popular stereotype of the population as a "model minority" and masks a more complicated appraisal of their education in the United States.[55] APA students who do not fit this image (teenage mothers, gang members, and school drop-outs) are seldom portrayed in the media. Yet these youths are a growing and significant concern in the APA community.[56]

The image of APAs as a "model minority group" has underlied many of American education's policies and practices toward APAs over the past three decades. It is a radical departure from their negative images as the "yellow peril" and "brown hordes" so prominent from the 1840s to the end of World War II. The new "positive" image conceals disparate educational achievements within and among APA ethnic groups and ignores obstacles in their educational pipeline. The "model minority" stereotype has hindered attention to real educational concerns.[57]

New research has documented wide disparities in APA educational achievement and has uncovered differences in how APAs respond to the pressures of the "model minority" stereotype. Many APA high school and college students have internalized the stereotype and believe they must be better prepared academically than other students and that they must perform well in mathematics and the sciences to conform to the image. Students also note that the stereotype evokes hostility in other students, who believe APAs are unfair academic competitors. Other APAs resist the "model minority" image because they cannot or will not meet its expectations and pressures. They may fail in subjects in which they lack interest, or aptitude, or they may drop out of school altogether to demonstrate their defiance. Still other APA students have real academic needs, such as English language or mathematics deficiencies, that are not addressed by educators determined to perpetuate the "model minority" stereotype.[58]

The "model minority" image also is applied to Asian Pacific Americans in the workplace, where they are considered to be hard-working, dutiful, well-represented in the professions, and economically successful, though lacking in the communication skills and leadership qualities necessary for higher level management positions. Here, too, the stereotype conceals their wide range of occupations, from garment workers to attorneys; a "glass ceiling" for professionals; high rates of poverty; and income and employment levels that are not commensurate with their schooling and work experi-

Photo Credit: State University of New York at Binghamton

ence. APAs' returns on education and employment are complex, diverse, and unequal compared with those of their white male counterparts, and they demonstrate the persistence of racial discrimination and other barriers.[39]

Nevertheless, the academic achievements and persistence of APA students should not be ignored. Neither should APAs with low educational attainment be viewed as anomalies rather than as a representative part of the APA population. Cultural explanations predominate in accounts of the school success or failure of individuals and racial/ethnic groups. Many academicians and social commentators look to "Asian cultures" to explain APA education. However, such interpretations result from "orientalized" or exotic misunderstandings of Asian Pacific Americans, and a belief that APAs embody "Asian cultures." Yet APA cultures are not fixed, and they do not exist in isolation. They are dynamic. Through negotiation, accommodation, and resistance to dominant American beliefs, norms, structures, and rewards, APAs create and recreate their cultures as they adapt to changing conditions.[40]

Furthermore, APAs represent more than two dozen communities with different histories, religions, and values. As mentioned above, APA groups arrived with different socioeconomic characteristics and have settled in the United States at different times and in different circumstances.

Cultural variables are difficult to define, isolate, and control for the purposes of research. Data directly linking specific values and educational performance are lacking, and conclusions tend to be based on suppositions and anecdotes. Moreover, cultural values identified with Asians, including respect for education, are neither unique nor exclusive to APAs; they are shared by many non-Asian groups.[41] Some scholars argue that APAs' educational "success" is a result of their "immigrant ethos." Voluntary minorities, i.e., immigrants, and involuntary minorities or groups incorporated into U.S. society by colonization, conquest, annexation, or slavery are perceived as having different approaches to education. Involuntary minorities in America often conclude that education is no guarantee of economic mobility. Immigrant racial minorities, on the other hand, have limited experience of American racism. They believe in the "American Dream" that hard work is rewarded. They tend to compare American opportunities with those in their homeland and retain a belief in the instrumental role of education—if not for themselves, then certainly for their children. The "immigrant ethos" may explain why APAs strive for good grades, but it has limitations. It assumes culture is static, views APAs as a homogenous group, and ignores the experiences of American-born APAs as well as those who are low achievers.[42]

Cultural explanations give little consideration to socio-historical, structural, and societal influences, including the education system itself, and American society. Most important, they obscure alternative interpretations.[43] For example, the high academic achievement of many APAs may be explained better by public and institutional policies, such as changes in U.S. immigration laws, the settlement of international students from Asia and the Pacific Rim in the United States, and the recruitment and retention of highly educated APAs into the country.

APA researchers were the first to call attention to the role of racism and other barriers in explaining the high participation rate of APAs in education.[44] Through interviews with APA students and parents, researchers have found that informants, regardless of social class, reported that their emphasis on education was a product of their perceptions of advanced schooling as an economic necessity and a protection against racial discrimination that might impede their social mobility. APAs' pursuit of education was pragmatic, goal-oriented, and job related. The notion of "education for its own sake" or as an aspect of "Asian cultures" was not the primary emphasis. Occupations in the sciences, engineering, and health care were given priority because they are perceived to be valued in American society, provide financial security, and are not likely to be eliminated in the future.[45]

Recent studies of APAs provide additional insights into the social costs of racism and other barriers to achieving an education. APA parents often make personal and financial sacrifices. For example, some Korean American parents report moving to neighborhoods with public schools that stress academics, sending their children to after-school programs for additional study, and providing them with tutors for difficult subjects even if such actions are detrimental to their own needs and lifestyles. However, some APAs find the racial climate defeating and do not find economic salvation in educational and occupational attainment. Some react with anger, low achievement, and anti-social behaviors that are destructive to themselves and their communities.[46]

Studies document that APA high school students spend more time than white students doing homework (from five to ten hours more per week), study in groups to make up for individual deficiencies, take more advanced college preparatory courses, and are less likely than whites to be absent from school or to cut classes.[47]

Like their peers, many APA students are actively engaged in a wide range of extracurricular activities, from sports, to student government, to religious groups, to political activism. They are perceived unjustly as "nerds," and indeed resent this perception. Some APA students become politically active on campuses and in their communities in an effort to redress the inequality in their environment.[48]

Qualitative studies on APAs who persist through college also reveal subtle forms of exclusion. They find that APA students and their concerns tend to be ignored by faculty, staff, and administrators, in part because of their presumed "success." APAs who challenge the Eurocentric, male-dominated, heterosexual curriculum and its theoretical paradigms find they often are silenced in the classroom. Thus, while large numbers of APAs are obtaining college degrees, they experience "hidden injuries of race" and "everyday inequities" in the course of their education.[49]

Many commentators have sought to deconstruct the "model minority" concept over the past three decades. The concept certainly is more "positive" than previous stereotypes of APAs, but it reduces APA groups and individuals to an unrealistic, simplistic image. For those unable or unwilling to live up to the image, the consequences are real. APAs who are at risk, have unmet academic needs, and are hindered by obstacles in the educational pipeline are being neglected. More balanced research that includes structural, institutional, and societal influences is needed to explicate Asian Pacific American educational trends. The outstanding academic achievement of many APAs is significant, but such success is not representative of all APAs.

DEMOGRAPHIC AND EDUCATIONAL TRENDS

Demographic Profile

Comparison Data by Race, Sex, and Age

Asian Pacific Americans, compared with other racial/ethnic groups in the United States, are a relatively small population that has made and continues to make major contributions to American society. By July 1996, the U.S. Bureau of the Census estimated the number of APAs to be approximately 9,638,000, or 3.6 percent of the U.S. population (Table 26). APAs have a male-to-female ratio similar to that of the general population. Like other communities of color, they are a relatively young population: Their median age was 30.5 years, a slight rise from 1990 yet still younger than the median age for all Americans and for whites, though older than other comparison groups.[50]

Median age varies across APA ethnic groups, ranging from a high of 36.3 years for those of Japanese descent to 25.2 for Vietnamese, 20.4 for Laotians, 19.4 for Cambodians, and 12.5 for Hmong.[51]

Population Growth

The relatively small size of the APA population belies its complexity in growth and ethnic diversity. Their numbers increased significantly from 1970 to 1990, more than doubling from 1970 to 1980 and nearly doubling again from 1980 to 1990 (Table 27). The Census Bureau projected an increase of 32.5 percent for the years 1990 to 1996.

APA immigration in the late 1990s and into the next century may slow from its remarkable growth over the previous two decades. First, the entry of Vietnam War–era refugees has nearly ended. Second, the economic boom in Asia has allowed potential emigrants to remain in their countries and has resulted in the return of a number of APAs to Asia. Third, U.S. immigration policies have become and may continue to become more restrictive as anti-immigrant sentiment grows. Nevertheless, it is difficult to predict how political, economic, and social changes in the United States and elsewhere will affect international population movements.

Ethnic Composition

The overall increase in the size of the APA population from 1970 to 1990 has been accompanied by diversification within it. Growth rates among APA ethnic groups differ (Table 27). Chinese, Filipinos, Asian Indians, Koreans, and Vietnamese American groups have posted rapid gains since 1965, resulting in new communities that now comprise sizable portions of the APA population. The Japanese American community, on the other hand, has received far fewer new immigrants and reflects a more stable U.S.-born group.[52]

Ethnic diversity within the APA population is illustrated in Figure 22.[53] This breakdown represents a dramatic change from 1960, when Japanese Americans were the largest APA ethnic group, Asian Indians and Koreans were small communities, and the number of Southeast Asians in the United States was negligible. The new groups have changed the ethnic composition of the APA population significantly, making it one of the most diverse racial/ethnic groups in the United States.[54]

Place of Birth

Over the past three decades, the APA population has shifted from being largely American born to being one in which the majority of its members are first-generation Americans. Their places of birth (according to the 1990 Census) reflect the predominance of

recent immigrants and war refugees. Only 7.9 percent of the total U.S. population is foreign born, yet 63.1 percent of APAs were born in a country other than the United States. In contrast, 36 percent of Hispanics and 3.3 percent of whites are foreign born.[55] APAs accounted for 23 percent of all foreign-born persons who have become United States citizens, while Hispanics and blacks accounted for 40 percent and 7 percent of the total, respectively.[56]

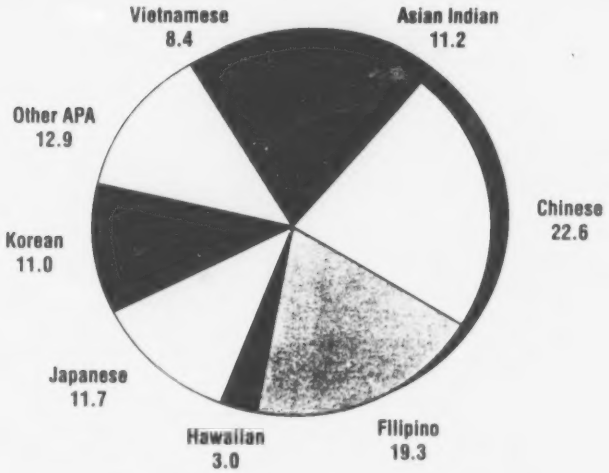
Separating those of Asian descent from Pacific Islanders, 65.6 percent of Asian Americans were foreign born, compared with only 12.9 percent of Pacific Islanders. The total percentage of foreign-born persons within each APA ethnic group also varies widely (Figure 23). The high percentage of foreign-born Vietnamese, Laotian, Cambodian, and Hmong Americans reflects their post-1975 refugee status, while Japanese Americans had the lowest percentage of foreign born and were primarily U.S. born.[57]

Language Spoken in the Home

The language spoken at home by APAs reflects the fact that many of them are first-generation Americans. Of the total U.S. population, 13.8 percent speak a language other than English, compared with 73.3 percent of APAs. Fifty-six percent of APAs report they do not speak English "very well," and 35 percent live in linguistically isolated settings. By comparison, 78 percent of Hispanics speak a language other than English, with 40 percent reporting they do not speak English "very well," and 7.7 percent living in linguistically isolated settings.

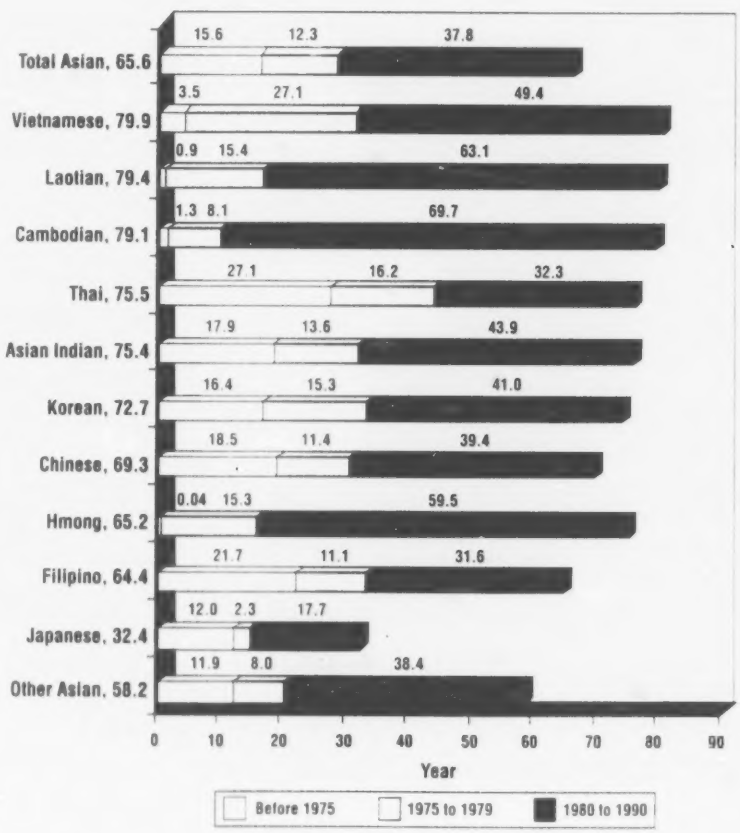
In terms of this characteristic, too, APAs are diverse (Table 28).[58] For some APAs, especially the American born and Hawaiians, English is their first (and often only) language. But most APAs speak a language

Figure 22
Asian Pacific American Population by Selected Ethnic Group: 1990



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *We, the Americans: Asian*, 1993.

Figure 23
Foreign-Born APAs by Year of Entry: 1990
(by Percent)



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *We, the Americans: Asian*, 1993.

other than English. Many are fluent bilingual or multilingual speakers, and some speak more than one dialect of an Asian language. Southeast Asian groups, in particular, live in limited English–speaking environments and tend to be linguistically isolated. Limited English proficiency is a critical issue that has serious implications for them vis á vis their educational aspirations and career advancement.

Place of Residence

Asian Pacific Americans can be found in every state, but nearly 70 percent of the population live in just six states: California, Hawaii, Illinois, New York, Texas, and Washington. Moreover, they are concentrated geographically. Nearly 58 percent of all APAs live in the West, compared with 21 percent of the U.S. population and 19.5 percent of whites. In addition, significant APA clusters can be found in other areas, such as Boston and Washington, DC.

APAs also are highly urbanized. In 1990, 90 percent of all APAs lived "inside urbanized areas" as defined by the Bureau of the Census; approximately 47 percent lived in central cities, and 42 percent were in urban fringe areas.[59] By comparison, 64 percent of the total U.S. population, 58 percent of whites, 78 percent of African Americans, 82 percent of Hispanics, and 39 percent of American Indians lived inside urbanized areas.

Los Angeles–Long Beach, CA, had the largest number of APA households (276,886), followed by New York City (167,261), Honolulu (155,189), San Francisco (96,493), and Oakland (77,154). Honolulu had the highest percentage of APA households, with nearly 60 percent of its households listed as APA.[60] When comparing APAs with other segments of the U.S. population and to the general population, it is more instructive to compare APAs with others living in the West or inside urbanized areas.[61]

Family and Household Characteristics

In 1990, 82 percent of all APA families were headed by married couples, compared with 79.5 percent of all U.S. families, 83.9 percent of white families, 70 percent of Hispanic families, and 49 percent of black families. The average size of an APA family—3.74 persons—was greater than that of all U.S. families (3.16 persons), white families (3.06 persons), African American families (3.46 persons), and American Indian families (3.57 persons), but smaller than Hispanic families (3.84).

Again, great diversity is found within the APA population. Among groups of Asian descent, family size ranged from 3.1 for Japanese American households to 6.4 for Hmong Americans. All Pacific Islander groups exceeded the average APA family size, with a group average of 4.0 persons per family, ranging from 3.8 for Hawaiians to 4.8 for Samoans.[62]

Housing Characteristics

APA families are more likely than white families to live in crowded conditions (as defined by the U.S. Bureau of the Census). Within metropolitan areas, APAs are eight times (24 percent) as likely as whites (3 percent) to live in crowded households. In central city areas, 28 percent of APAs versus 4 percent of whites live in crowded conditions.[63]

The median value of homes owned by APAs in 1990 was $184,000, double that for whites ($91,700). However, this large discrepancy in home values is explained by the concentration of APA owners in California and Honolulu, where median home prices are well above the U.S. norm. APA home values in metropolitan areas in California were generally comparable to those of whites, while in Honolulu, the median home value for white owners was $324,900, compared with $274,000 for APA owners. For renters in the top 25 metropolitan areas, APAs paid a median of $447 per month, or 15 percent more than whites ($390 per month). In suburban areas, APAs paid $579 per month versus $443 for whites—a discrepancy of 31 percent.[64] Clearly, APAs require more income to cover their housing expenses than they would if they lived in less costly areas of the nation.

Income

Table 29 summarizes various perspectives on income.[65] Median family income, number of wage earners per family, per capita income, and percentage below poverty for aggregated comparison groups and those living inside urbanized areas are examined.

Median family income (Table 29), based on the income produced by family members living together, is an often-reported measure of the economic health of families. APAs have the highest family median income when compared with all other groups at the national level. However, national figures are misleading, because APAs live and work primarily in urbanized areas, which have higher costs and higher incomes. Examining data only for families living inside urbanized areas provides more meaningful information. The median family income for APA families inside urbanized areas remains essentially the same, while the median family income for all other groups, including whites, rises; in fact, in this comparison, the median family income for whites exceeds that for APAs.[66] Thus, the higher median family income for APAs in the national comparison can be explained by their concentration in high-cost/high-income urbanized areas—areas in which *all* median incomes are skewed upward. APA median family income in urbanized areas in fact is less than that for whites, yet is remarkably greater than that for Afri-

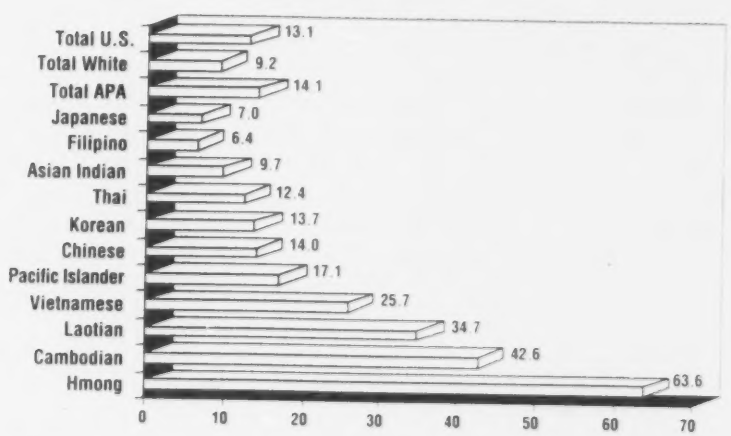
can Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians.

However, annual median family income can be misleading when the number of wage earners per family, the average per capita earnings, and the poverty level within a community are not taken into account. Compared with other groups, APAs reported the highest percentage (20 percent) of families with three or more wage earners (Table 29). Within the APA population, Filipino and Vietnamese Americans reported the highest percentages of families with three or more workers—29.6 percent and 21.3 percent, respectively.[67] The relatively higher median incomes for APA families noted earlier may reflect the fact that APAs often have a larger number of wage earners per family than other groups.

Annual per capita income is another important variable in understanding APAs' economic status. APAs' per capita income was lower than the averages for both the U.S. population and whites, but significantly greater than that for African Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians (Table 29). Data for those living inside urbanized areas reveal even larger discrepancies in per capita income, with APAs showing the same income and all other comparison groups showing increases.[68] Note the additional $2,200 gap between the per capita incomes of APAs and whites in urbanized areas versus the gap between the two groups in the national aggregation.

Annual per capita income within the APA population also varies significantly, ranging from $19,373 for Japanese Americans to $2,692 for Hmong Americans. Filipinos, Koreans, Thais, all Southeast Asian groups, and all Pacific Islander groups earned significantly less than the national per capita average of $14,420, while Japanese, Asian Indians, and Chinese earned more than the national average.[69]

Figure 24
Poverty Rate by APA Ethnic Group: 1990
(by Percent)



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *1990 Census of Population, Social and Economic Characteristics*, (CP-2-1), 1993.

Poverty rates also are an indicator of economic status. Poverty rates were greater for all minority groups when compared with the nation as a whole or to whites (Table 29). Inside urbanized areas, the poverty rate for APAs is the same, while those for all other groups are lower. APA poverty rates are nearly double the rates for whites and for the population as a whole, but they are remarkably lower than the rates for African Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians. These data do not explain the differential rates of persons of color and whites or of APAs and other persons of color, but they underscore the need for comprehensive studies on urban poverty.

Within-group variability in poverty rates for the APA population also suggests a complex situation. Southeast Asian communities and Pacific Islanders have higher rates of poverty than other groups (Figure 24).[70] The relatively lower rate of poverty for Filipinos may reflect, in part, Filipinos' higher percentage of families with three or more earners (29.6 percent) and their relatively larger family size (4.0 persons).

In examining the economic health of APA communities, one must take into account their concentration in high-cost/high-income urbanized areas as well as the fact that their families typically have larger numbers of wage earners. APA individuals and families have not reached parity with whites in the United States in terms of median family income, per capita income, or poverty level. Moreover, recent immigration or refugee status, English language development needs, and chronic socioeconomic concerns in certain segments of the APA community, particularly among Southeast Asians and Pacific Islanders, suggest a community at risk.[71] The economic condition of APAs remains complex, yet they are significantly more secure than

other people of color. Nevertheless, that relative security should not deny them access to economic equity or social support.

Occupational Characteristics

APA men and women have a higher rate of labor participation than the overall U.S. population.[72] This may be due in part to their lower per capita income; more people per family or household may need to work to ensure economic survival.

U.S. census data for 1990 reveal that APAs 16 years old and over were employed in the categories of technical, sales, and administrative support (33 percent), managerial and professional specialty (31.2 percent), and service (14.6 percent) in percentages similar to those for all Americans (32 percent, 26 percent, and 13.2 percent). APAs were less likely to be employed in precision production, craft, and repair and operators, fabricators, and laborers categories than the general population.[73]

The participation of APA groups within each occupation category varies widely. For example, of all APAs in the managerial and professional specialty, Asian Indians account for 43.6 percent and Laotians only 5 percent. In the service category, Thais are the largest group, accounting for 26.8 percent of the APA total; Asian Indians account for only 8.1 percent.[74]

These gross occupational categories provide an incomplete portrait of APA employment. Census data on managers, for example, do not provide information on APA work conditions or occupational opportunities. Data on managers combine salaried managers in large-scale organizations with self-employed persons, thus blurring the notion of managers. APA managers often are self-employed, and many do not benefit from the traditional employment opportunities, remuneration, and security of managers in the corporate and public sectors.

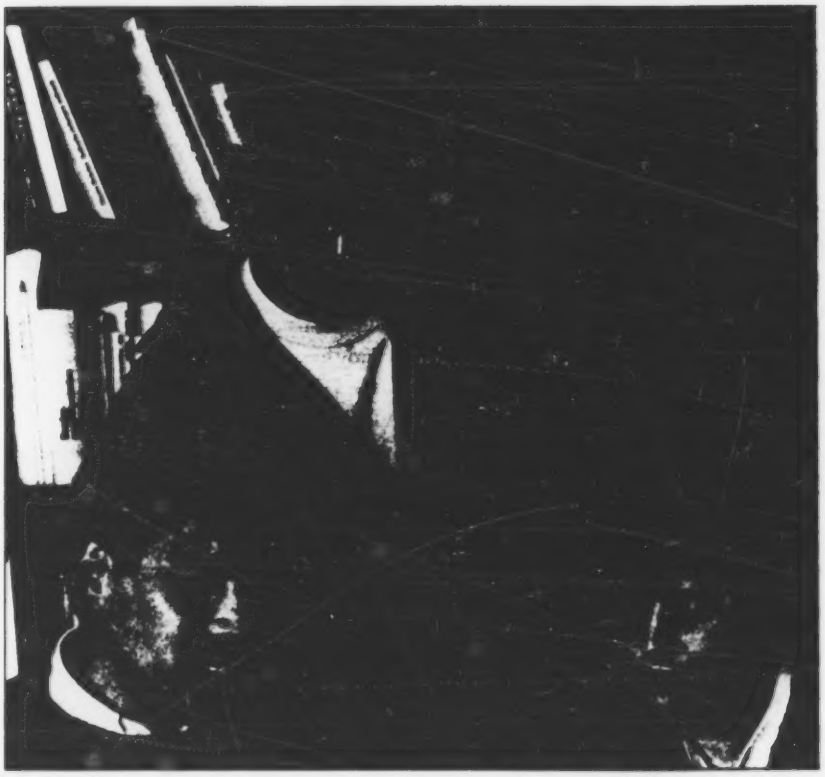


Photo Credit: Tufts University

Self-employed APAs reveal a bimodal pattern. Since the 1980s, the number of high-technology businesses that are owned and operated by highly educated APA entrepreneurs has increased. These global businesses often generate millions of dollars in annual sales.[75] In contrast, other self-employed APAs, including many with college degrees, operate small "mom and pop" stores. They often preside over marginal enterprises that depend on unpaid or low paid family labor and long hours for economic survival.[76] Mixing these two levels of the self-employed certainly is problematic.

More detailed studies reveal complexities in APA employment. Many studies suggest that numerous APAs have been denied mainstream employment opportunities because of racial discrimination, limited English language skills, and other barriers. Self-employment often becomes a substitute for under-employment or limited career paths.[77]

EDUCATIONAL TRENDS

Educational Attainment

Table 30 presents comparative educational attainment data for persons 25 years of age and older in 1994.[78] It appears that the APA population's educational attainment level is much higher than that of the total U.S. population and identical to that of whites. However, disparities exist within levels of attainment. For example, a higher percentage of APAs than of all Americans and all whites have an eighth grade education or less, while the percentage of APAs with bachelor's degrees or more is nearly twice that for the U.S. population and for whites. However, these national figures are distorted; a more accurate picture of APA educational attainment is obtained by examining data comparing APAs only with populations residing in the West, where APAs are concentrated.

Those residing in the West appear to have obtained more education than the country in general (Table 30). Whites in the West had the highest rate of high school graduation or beyond (90.3 percent). However,

more than 10 percent of APAs had an eighth grade education or less, more than three times the rate for the white population in the West. While APAs still lead whites in terms of the percentage with a bachelor's degree or more, the gap between APAs and whites in the West is less than the gap between them nationwide.

Gender differences exist both within the APA population's educational attainment levels and compared to those of whites. In the West, 14.5 percent of APA females have an eighth grade education or less, and 80.3 percent of them have completed high school compared with 10.8 percent and 83.9 percent of APA males. Thirteen percent of APA females—4.5 times the rate for white females—completed only eighth grade or less. However, APA women also had higher college completion rates (32.5 percent) than white females (23.8 percent).[79]

An examination of educational attainment by ethnic group within the APA population reveals that some groups are educationally at risk. Table 31 shows high percentages of persons with less than a fifth grade education among refugee groups, including Vietnamese, Cambodian, Hmong, and Laotian Americans. Southeast Asians also have lower high school completion and college participation rates than other APAs.

The educational attainment of Pacific Islander groups (particularly Hawaiians, Samoans, and Guamanians), who are largely U.S. born and have their full education experience in the American educational system, also is problematic. Members of these groups appear to graduate from high school in reasonable numbers, though slightly less than other groups, but their college enrollment and completion rates are very low compared with both APAs as a whole and the total population. The low rates of "some college" and "college completion" among at-risk groups raise questions about the need for educational intervention and suggest, once again, that focusing on aggregated data for APAs masks groups at serious educational risk.

Educational Attainment, Earnings, and Poverty Rates

Educational attainment has not resulted in income parity for APAs when compared with either the U.S. population or whites (Table 32). APAs earn less than the aggregate of the U.S. population and whites in every educational attainment category except "some college or associate degree."[80] (Comparable data for other racial/ethnic minorities were not available.)

The discrepancy between educational attainment and income for APAs also is revealed in family poverty rates. Rates of poverty by educational levels (Table 32) show that the poverty rate for APAs far exceeds the rates for the population as a whole and for whites.[81] Thus, while APAs have made progress in terms of their educational attainment, they are not rewarded to the same extent as whites.

In summary, the educational attainment of APAs generally is high, but it remains lower than that of whites in the West. It also is complex and varied. The bimodal pattern of educational attainment reflects the emergence of a bifurcated APA population that largely is a reflection of the socioeconomic characteristics of post-1965 immigrants and refugees and the circumstances surrounding their arrival in the United States. The high percentage of APAs with bachelor's degrees or more includes immigrants with college degrees recruited under the "professional and highly educated preference" category of the 1965 Immigration Act. Likewise, the high percentage of those who arrived as refugees includes most of those with an educational attainment level of eighth grade or less. The low educational levels of at-risk APA populations and the lack of income parity across all educational attainment levels by those populations warrant special attention. The disaggregation of data by ethnic groups allows more precise analysis of APA educational and other characteristics.

College Preparation and Beyond

The relatively high percentages of Asian Pacific American students bound for college over the past two decades are well-documented. APAs have a higher expectation of going to college than other racial/ethnic groups. For high school seniors in 1992, 77 percent of APAs expected to attend and complete a two- or four-year college program, compared with 67 percent of all teens, 67 percent of whites, 63 percent of African Americans, and 46 percent of Hispanics. All groups showed a significant increase in expectations from 1972.[82] Similarly, The College Board found that APAs accounted for 6 percent of college-bound students in 1987 and 9 percent in 1996.[83]

APA students were better prepared for college than other racial/ethnic groups. They earned more academic credits than other teens in 1994; 57 percent of APA high school graduates completed the "New Basics" curriculum, compared with 51 percent of all teens, 54 percent of whites, 45 percent of African Americans, and 44 percent of Hispanics and American Indians/Alaskan Natives. Furthermore, 44 percent of APA seniors took 20 or more year-long academic courses prior to graduation, a percentage similar to that for whites and greater than those for Hispanics (37 percent) and African Americans (27 percent).[84]

APA achievements, however, were uneven. APA high school seniors were less proficient readers than white seniors and seniors as a whole and more proficient in mathematics

and science than other groups.[85] The College Board reported that APA seniors had a lower average score on the SAT 1 Verbal (496) than did all students (505) or white students (526), though the score was higher than those for all other racial/ethnic groups reported. On the SAT 1 Math, APAs scored an average of 558, higher than any other group reported. College-bound APA seniors in 1996 also showed a 17-point improvement over their 1987 counterparts in both their average verbal and math SAT scores.[86] Limited English proficiency restricts APA opportunities in the educational pipeline. For example, limited English skills restrict APA students' college eligibility and transfer to four-year institutions in California. In contrast, limited mathematics skills are a barrier for Latino students, many of whom also have limited English skills. College-bound APAs who do not meet the English requirements of four-year institutions attend community colleges, where they typically accumulate a disproportionately higher number of ESL credits than other groups. Such credits are not transferable to B.A.-granting institutions; the result is an extension of the number of years required for APAs to finish college.[87]

Racial/ethnic groups also differ in their rates of college completion. For high school graduates in 1989–90 who sought a bachelor's degree, 69 percent of APA students either finished their bachelor's degree by 1994 or were still enrolled in a bachelor's degree program, compared with 64 percent of all students, 65 percent of white students, 53 percent of African American students, and 54 percent of Hispanic students.[88]

In summary, many more APA high school students than students of other races and ethnicities expect to attend and complete college, take more academic courses, are generally better prepared to begin college, and persist to completion. Limited English proficiency may reflect the fact that many APAs are foreign born; it also may suggest the failure of the U.S. public schools to provide adequate English language training. This limits APAs' educational choices. APAs may have higher math scores because their own parents are professionals educated in math and science areas and/or because other students, parents, teachers, and guidance counselors believe that students with limited English skills can succeed more readily by concentrating on math and science—fields that they erroneously presume do not require mastery of English. Overall, APAs' academic expectations, preparation, and perseverance are factors that should translate into high rates of college attendance and degree completion.

Enrollment in Higher Education

Except for limited Census data presented in this section, data on APAs in higher education are aggregated for all ethnic groups within the APA community. As explained earlier, aggregated data homogenize the experiences of APAs and provide a distorted picture of the educational participation of groups *within* the APA population. The lack of adequate disaggregated data contributes to over-generalized and sometimes spurious interpretations of the APA experience in higher education. Therefore, caution must be exercised when APA higher education data are analyzed and interpreted.

Careful preparation for college by many Asian Pacific American students contributes to high rates of eligibility and increased college enrollment. Their enrollment in higher education also mirrors the growth in the APA population since 1965. Between 1984 and 1995, APAs were the second fastest growing racial/ethnic group at the undergraduate and graduate levels (101.7 percent and 105.4 percent) and the fastest growing group at the professional school level, where their enrollment rose by 233.3 percent (Table 6). In 1995, APA students represented 5.6 percent of all students enrolled in higher education, including 5.7 percent of undergraduates, 4.4 percent of graduate students, and 10.1 percent of professional school students (see Tables 4, 5, and 6 for complete data on all racial/ethnic groups).

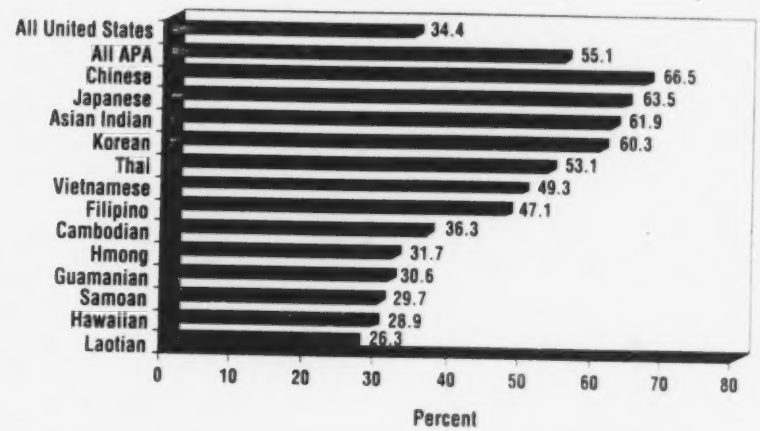
Table 33 shows the percentage of persons 18 to 24 years old enrolled in college in 1990, by race and gender. More than half of all APAs in this age group were enrolled in college during the reporting period. This rate exceeds those for the total population and for whites. It is more than double the rates for blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians.

Disaggregating these higher education data by gender reveals important differences. Women in all racial/ethnic groups, with the exception of APAs, have made up more than half of all students enrolled in higher education since 1986. The number of APA women enrolled in college lagged behind the number of APA men until 1994, when more APA women than men were enrolled. From 1984 to 1995, enrollment of APA women increased by 124 percent, the highest rate of any group (Table 5).[88] The overall increase in APA enrollment is due in part to the increase in the number of female APA students.

Some disaggregated data on APA education are available from the decennial Census data (Figure 25). The 1990 figures show that college enrollment within the 18- to 24-year-old APA population varies significantly. Participation rates ranged from a high of 66 percent for Chinese Americans to a low of 26 percent for Laotian Americans.[89] Of the 797,000 APAs who participated in higher education in 1995, 60 percent were enrolled at four-year institu-

tions, with the remainder enrolled at two-year institutions. By comparison, 61 percent of all students, 63 percent of whites, 58 percent of blacks, 44 percent of Hispanics, and 50 percent of American Indians were enrolled at four-year institutions.[90] Eighty percent of APAs were enrolled at public institutions, compared with 78 percent of all students, 77 percent of whites, 79 percent of blacks, 86 percent of Hispanics, and 87 percent of American Indians.[91]

Figure 25
College Enrollment of Persons Ages 18 to 24 Years Old (by APA Ethnic Group)



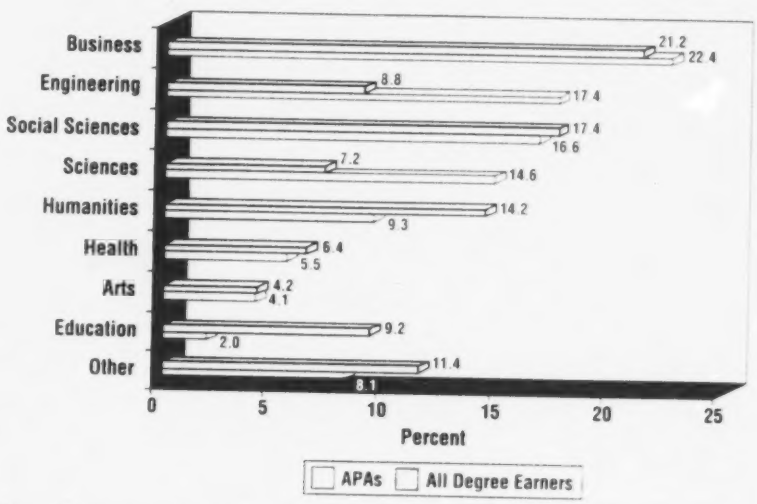
Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *1990 Census of Population, Social and Economic Characteristics* (CP-2-1), 1993

Degrees Earned and Fields of Study

Associate degrees

In 1994, Asian Pacific Americans earned 3.4 percent of all associate degrees, up from 2.3 percent in 1985 (Table 9). While the number of degrees earned by APA males increased steadily, rising by 53 percent between 1985 and 1993, the number earned by APA females in this period more than doubled (132 percent). The significant rise in the number of APA women earning associate degrees enabled them to surpass their male counterparts by 1990, a feat women in other racial/ethnic groups had accomplished at least five years earlier.

Figure 26
Bachelor's Degrees by Selected Fields—APAs Versus All Degree Earners; 1994 (by Percent)



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions" Survey

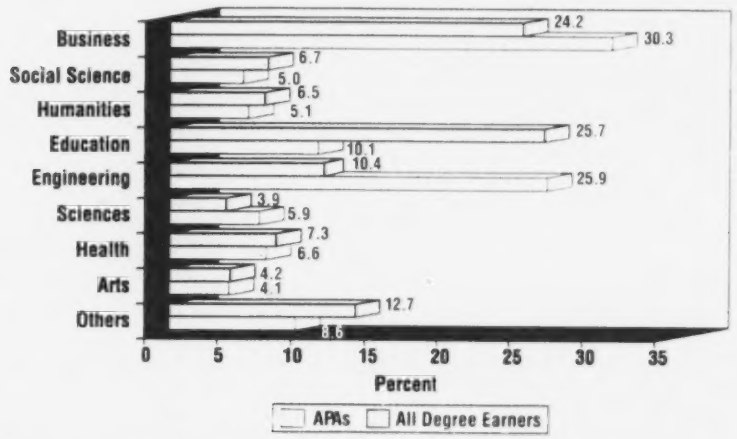
Bachelor's degrees

APAs earned 4.8 percent of all bachelor's degrees in 1994, an increase from 2.6 percent in 1985 (Table 10). The number of bachelor's degrees earned by APAs rose from 25,395 in 1985 to 55,660 in 1994, a jump of 119 percent. By comparison, whites earned 80 percent of all bachelor's degrees in 1994, an increase of 13.3 percent in the number of degrees earned since 1985, which included a decrease of 1.2 percent from 1993 to 1994. APA women made major gains in terms of the number of bachelor's degrees earned between 1985 and 1994 (increasing by 142.6 percent) and reached parity with their male counterparts in 1992, when they obtained slightly more than half of all bachelor's degrees earned by APAs.

In 1994, APAs received nearly 10 percent of all science and engineering bachelor's degrees, but only 1 percent of B.A.s in English. They earned 5 percent of all baccalaureates in business and similar proportions in the arts (4.7 percent), social sciences (4.6 percent), health (4.1 percent), and humanities (3.2 percent).

Business was the leading field of study for APAs at the baccalaureate level in 1994, as it was for all students. Large numbers of APAs also majored in engineering-related fields, the social sciences, sciences, and the humanities. Health, arts, and education

Figure 27
Master's Degrees by Selected Fields—APAs Versus All Degree Earners: 1995
(by Percent)



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions" Survey.

were selected by relatively small numbers of APA students (Figure 26).[92]

Fields selected by APA bachelor's degree earners varied by gender (Table 34). APA women earned the most degrees in health-related subjects, education, humanities, and the arts. They slightly outnumbered APA men in the social sciences and business, but they were surpassed by men in the sciences. APA men dominated engineering and engineering-related fields (77.6 percent), though the percentage of such degrees earned by APA men was less than that for men in general in these fields of study (82 percent of all engineering bachelor's degrees).

Thus, while engineering and the sciences often are selected by APAs as fields of study, especially by males, APAs earn baccalaureates in all fields of study. In fact, APAs resembled all students in their predominant selection of business as a major, and APA choices of majors also reflect gender differences. The stereotype of the APA math or science "nerd" clearly is a misperception. American-born and middle-class APAs also are less likely to choose math and applied science careers than males from immigrant and working-class families.[93] Hence, as each new generation of American-born APAs enrolls in college, the range of fields of study among APA students is likely to broaden even further.

Master's degrees

APAs showed a steady increase in the number of master's degrees earned over the past decade. APAs received 4.0 percent (15,267) of all such degrees in 1994, compared with 2.8 percent (7,782) in 1985 (Table 11). Whites earned 74.8 percent of all master's degrees in 1994, while African Americans earned 5.7 percent, Hispanics 3.1 percent, and American Indians 0.4 percent.

Of all master's degree recipients, APAs were represented significantly in engineering/computer sciences (9.8 percent) and the sciences (6.0 percent). They earned 4.9 percent of all business degrees and relatively small proportions of master's degrees in the arts (3.9 percent), health (3.6 percent), humanities (3.1 percent), social sciences (2.8 percent), and education (1.6 percent).[94]

Among 1994 APA master's degree recipients, 30.3 percent were in business, paralleling the proportion for all master's degree recipients (Figure 27). APAs earned 25.9 percent of their master's degrees in engineering and computer science, a share significantly greater than that for all degree earners (10.4 percent). APAs also earned 5.9 percent of their master's degrees in science, slightly more than for all degree earners (3.9 percent). APAs earned only 10 percent of master's degrees in education, in contrast to 25.7 percent for all degree earners. The proportions of master's degrees earned by APAs in all other fields were similar to those for the total population of master's degree recipients.

At least since 1985, women have earned more than half of all master's degrees each year (Table 11). However, unlike women in all other racial/ethnic groups, APA women have yet to reach parity with APA men in terms of the number of master's degree earned. APA women more than doubled the number of master's degrees they earned between 1985 and 1994 (an increase of 139.5 percent), but still received only 46 percent of APA master's degrees in 1994. APA women outnumbered APA men in terms of the numbers of master's degrees earned in education, health, arts, the humanities, and the social sciences but were underrepresented in business, the sciences, and engineering/computer science (Table 35). Clearly, choice of master's degree field continues to differ largely by gender. APA women are making gains, but they continue to lag behind women in other racial/ethnic groups.

First-Professional Degrees[95]

In 1994, APAs earned 7.8 percent (5,892) of all first-professional degrees, an increase of 224.4 percent since 1985 (Table 12). While APA women continued to earn fewer first-professional degrees than APA men (2,678 versus 3,214), they made the greatest gains of any racial/ethnic group, with an increase of 303 percent since 1985. Women in all racial/ethnic groups made major strides in terms of the numbers of first-professional degrees earned over the past decade. However, they have yet to reach parity with their male counterparts.

Law and medicine accounted for 53 percent and 20.4 percent of all first-professional degrees conferred in 1994. APAs, however, earned 39 percent and 30.4 percent of their first-professional degrees in medicine and law. Dentistry also was a more popular degree for APAs (9 percent) than for all first-professional degree earners (5 percent).[96] APA men and women are earning first-professional degrees in greater proportions than doctorates when compared with others. The ratio in 1994 for APAs was 5.3 professional degrees for every doctorate earned, compared with ratios of 2.7 for all U.S. citizens and permanent residents, 2.5 for whites, 4.0 for blacks, 3.5 for Hispanics, and 2.6 for American Indians. APAs may believe that first-professional degrees confer greater job security, prestige, and earning power than doctorates. This would support the hypothesis that APAs select education, training, and fields of study on the basis of economic concerns rather than a presumed cultural respect for education.

Doctorates

In 1995, American higher education institutions conferred 41,610 doctorates, 27,603 of which were earned by U.S. citizens (Table 17). APA U.S. citizens received 2.7 percent (1,138) of all doctorates and 4.1 percent of doctorates earned by U.S. citizens that year. In contrast, international students from Asia earned eight times the number of doctorates in 1995 as Asian Pacific Americans, or 21 percent (8,558) of the total (Table 17).

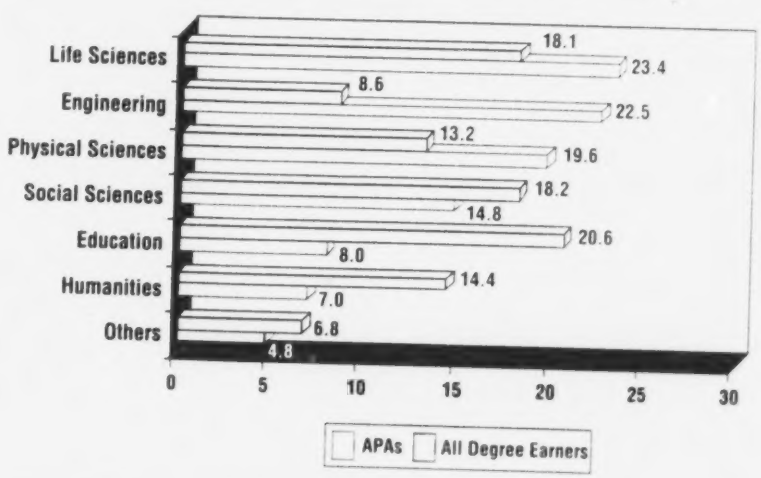
Most APA doctorate recipients have received all or most of their education in the United States and should not be confused with Asian doctorate recipients, most of whom are educated first in Asia, arrive in the United States as graduate students, and most often return to their countries of origin for employment. Some foreign students do remain in the United States, become permanent residents and citizens, and find employment in industry and higher education. They often are included within the APA framework. Observers of American colleges and universities frequently confuse Asian foreign students with APA students; they thereby bolster the perception that Asian Pacific Americans are overrepresented in higher education, which they are not. Separating APAs from Asian foreign students results in a modest representation of APAs at the doctoral level.

The number of doctorates earned by APAs increased by 120 percent between 1985 and 1995; an even more impressive gain (149 percent) was recorded by APA women (Table 17). Nonetheless, the absolute numbers of doctorates earned by APAs, especially APA women, remain modest. APA females earned 468 doctorates in 1995, or 41.1 percent of all APA doctorates earned, while women generally earned 46 percent of all U.S. doctorates awarded that year. With the exception of African American women, females in every racial/ethnic group continued to earn fewer doctorates than males. The implications for women in the higher education employment pipeline are profound. The disparity partially explains women's increasing, but still limited, presence as faculty members.

Within fields of study and for U.S. citizens only, APAs earned 255 doctorates, or 10.7 percent of the total in engineering in 1995. They also earned 266 doctorates in the life sciences (5.3 percent), 223 in the physical sciences (6.1 percent), 168 in the social sciences (3.3 percent), 81 in the humanities (2.0 percent), and 80 in education (1.4 percent). APAs appear to be well represented in engineering, life sciences, and physical sciences but underrepresented in all other fields of study.

Of the 1,138 APA doctoral degrees earned in 1995, most were in the life sciences (23.4 percent), engineering (22.5 percent),

Figure 28
Doctoral Degrees by Selected Fields—APAs Versus All Degree Earners: 1995



Source: National Research Council, Doctorate Records File, 1995

and the physical sciences (19.6 percent) (Figure 28). While APAs complete doctorates in the social sciences (14.8 percent), education (8.0 percent), and humanities (7.0 percent), their absolute numbers remain small compared with the total numbers of doctorates awarded in these fields. APAs earn greater proportions of doctorates than bachelor's or master's degrees in science and engineering, reflecting the interests of the larger number of APA males enrolled at the doctoral degree level.

The Education Pipeline: Opportunities and Barriers

The number of Asian Pacific Americans in higher education has increased steadily since 1985, especially at the bachelor's, master's, and first-professional levels. In part, this increase reflects the growth in the overall APA population due to the arrival of large numbers of immigrants and refugees since 1965. It also is part of a broader increase in college and university enrollment, as Americans of all racial/ethnic groups and socioeconomic characteristics pursue higher education opportunities.

Photo Credit: University of California at Los Angeles

APAs' selection of fields of study at the bachelor's and master's levels challenges their stereotype as primarily science and engineering majors. Their interests and career goals are complex and diverse, and they tend to some extent to be dictated by gender. Thus, they are not unlike other students. The diversification in APA fields of study at the doctoral level, while expanding, remains somewhat restricted to science and engineering.

The APA education pipeline, however, is not free flowing; it is constricted first of all by gender. The little research that has been done on APA women in education suggests that structural and societal barriers limit their progress. Both overall American and APA cultures continue to suggest that a woman's proper place is in the domestic sphere, with roles as a homemaker and a caretaker. Furthermore, it is believed that too much education is likely to jeopardize a woman's marriage opportunities and her traditional role. In APA immigrant and working-class households, in particular, children's help is especially critical to a family's economic well-being. Even as APA families support the education of both men and women, it is the young women who are expected to assume household responsibilities. They spend more time than their brothers cooking, cleaning, and caring for younger siblings. Hence, some APA adolescent women select a less academic course of study in high school or limit their educational ambition to the B.A. level. This is compounded by gender stereotyping by teachers and counselors and results in some APA women being less academically prepared for college than their male counterparts. Thus, their educational and career goals are restricted.[97]

APA women who pursue higher education share with their male counterparts a belief in education as a necessity for economic survival. However, gender discrimination continues through the higher education pipeline. APA women, like women of all racial/ethnic groups, experience a "chilly climate" in universities and colleges, where 66 percent of the faculty currently are men

(Table 20). Women continue to be valued less than men in the curriculum, the classroom, meetings with advisors, and consideration for research and other opportunities. Qualified APA women often are not identified or supported by faculty for graduate studies.[98] Moreover, they frequently are stereotyped as exotic sexual beings rather than as academics in their own right, and the resultant sexual harassment complicates their efforts to achieve educationally.[99] Thus, the APA gender gap reflects women's inequality across all races and ethnicities.

The APA education pipeline also is constricted at the doctoral level, where their share of doctorates earned by APAs has not been commensurate with the numbers of bachelor's and master's degrees. The small number of APAs in doctoral programs is explained only partially by their greater likelihood to pursue first-professional rather than doctoral studies. The campus climate continues to be racially biased and gender biased. The "chilly climate" that women experience in the pipeline also is experienced by racial minorities.

Numerous campus climate and other studies point to formal policies and informal practices that limit the number of doctorates awarded to minorities even in the present period of affirmative action, which now is under siege. APAs typically are overlooked, having been deemed a "model minority" and thus not in need of advisement. Few staff members are sensitive to their academic and personal concerns. APAs also are marginalized in the curriculum. This unwelcoming academic climate plays a role in doctoral recruitment. The doctoral process itself is a barrier because of its exclusivity. Based on an apprenticeship model, it continues to rely on the willingness of faculty to serve as mentors. APAs and other students of color speak of the lack of faculty mentors generally, the small numbers of faculty of color and of female faculty on American campuses, the lack of courses that reflect their interests (such as Asian American studies), and the difficulties they often encounter in having their perspectives and research interests respected or even considered by faculty.[100]
Affirmative action remains an essential component of access and equity for APAs, but it is only a first step. The progress of APAs in the education pipeline cannot be measured solely in quantitative terms, but also must include consideration of the quality of their educational experience.

HIGHER EDUCATION EMPLOYMENT

Faculty profile

The number of APA faculty increased steadily from 1983 to 1991 but declined by 4.8 percent between 1991 and 1993 (the last reporting period). APAs accounted for 4.7 percent of full-time faculty in 1993, a smaller percentage than in 1991 but greater than in 1983 (Table 20). APA faculty losses between 1991 and 1993 were due to a 7.7 percent decline in the number of male full-time faculty at the junior ranks of assistant professor (-19.0 percent), instructor and lecturer (-11.1 percent), and other faculty (-28.3 percent); these losses were not offset by the 5.0 percent increase in the number of APA female faculty during this period (Table 20).

While the decrease in the number of APA males at the junior level should be of concern, it may reflect a methodological change adopted in 1993 when the category "non-resident aliens" was added to the list of race/ethnicity selections for enumerating faculty. Until 1991, racial/ethnic counts of faculty included non-resident aliens within other racial categories, including APAs. One estimate suggested that foreign nationals accounted for 42 percent of all full-time APA faculty in 1991, an increase from 40 percent in 1989.[101] Thus, faculty data for APAs prior to 1991 included significant numbers of Asian foreign nationals, many of whom were educated first in their homelands and earned doctorates in the United States and who likely were in the process of becoming permanent U.S. residents or citizens. Given the large numbers of Asian foreign nationals in doctoral programs and higher education employment, an apparent decrease in the number of APA faculty can be expected when Asian nonresident aliens are removed from the APA racial category and counted separately, as they were in 1993. The precise impact of this change on the tabulation of APA faculty, however, is not known. Trends in the hiring of APA male faculty over the next few years should be monitored carefully to determine whether the decrease in the number of APA male faculty is primarily a statistical artifact or whether it is an early sign of faculty hiring problems.[102]

The APA faculty profile also is changing. The number of APA female faculty continues to increase, but APA women still lag well behind their male counterparts. APA faculty women nearly doubled in number from 1983 to 1993 (3,222 to 6,326), but APA men still represent three-quarters of all APA faculty (Table 20). APAs have the largest gender gap of any racial/ethnic group.

Table 36 details APA faculty by rank and sex in 1993. APA women accounted for 25 percent of all full-time APA faculty and were concentrated at the junior ranks, with the majority at the untenured level. They accounted for only 11.2 percent of all APA full professors. In contrast, most APA males were employed at the full professor level.

with smaller numbers in the junior ranks. This trend, in conjunction with the low tenure rate of APAs (discussed next), poses a serious problem for APA faculty renewal and representation.

APA full-time faculty teach in most disciplines. However, the primary areas in which they teach are divided along lines of gender. APA male faculty have a higher representation than their overall proportion in engineering, computer sciences, natural sciences, and first-professional disciplines. APA female faculty are represented to a greater extent than their overall proportion in foreign languages, and they are well-represented in the health sciences, especially nursing.[103]

No data could be found that disaggregate APA faculty by ethnic group. Hence, disparities in ethnic group representation and progress have not been examined. Further study of APA faculty should give attention to their ethnic diversity (or lack thereof) in recruitment and retention.

Tenure rate

Tenure rates vary by race and gender (Table 21). Whites have the highest rate of all racial/ethnic groups and men are tenured at higher rates than women in each of the major racial/ethnic groups. In 1983, APAs had the lowest tenure rate of all groups, at 61 percent; their rate of tenure rose modestly to 64 percent by 1993, compared with 71 percent for all faculty in both years. The tenure rate of APA males was 62 percent in 1983 and 67 percent by 1993, compared with 55 percent and 52 percent in those years for APA female faculty.[104] APA women lost ground over the past decade.

Administrative profile

APAs made up less than 1 percent of all chief executive officers in U.S. higher education in 1996 (Table 25). Of the 20 APA presidents of U.S. colleges and universities, the majority of male APA presidents headed four-year institutions, while the only two female APA presidents headed two-year institutions. As in government and the corporate world, APAs are poorly represented in top levels of administration, lending credence to the existence of a "glass ceiling" not just for women, but also for people of color.[105]

Higher Education Employment: Opportunities and Barriers

The number of APA faculty has increased over the past decade, reflecting a general trend among faculty of color. The small number of APA female faculty and their concentration at the junior ranks, along with uncertainties regarding APA male faculty recruitment, are issues of concern.

The modest and uneven representation of APA faculty on American campuses is a reflection both of their own choices and of institutional barriers. In a study of U.S. doctorate recipients in 1992, APAs were the least likely (26.6 percent) to plan employment with education institutions, compared with all U.S. doctorates (44.9 percent), whites (45.3 percent), African Americans (54.8 percent), Mexican Americans (54.1 percent), and American Indians (44.8 percent). APAs who earn doctorates in engineering, life sciences, and physical sciences have career opportunities in industry and self-employment as well as higher education. Many find private industry a more secure and remunerative option than the academy. In addition, some APAs are wary of faculty appointments, given the low tenure rate.[106]

For APAs seeking a career in higher education, opportunities are elusive. A recent study of faculty recruitment efforts over the past five years finds that concerted efforts by colleges and universities to diversify their faculty in the midst of the current tight job market are myths and not reality. Recent highly qualified doctoral recipients of all racial/ethnic groups, including white males, noted the persistent biases against minorities and women in the hiring process. Female and minority applicants interviewed for the study refuted the belief that they were being hotly pursued by institutions and that they had received competitive offers. Faculty recruitment and hiring practices have not changed significantly, and faculty diversification, including the incorporation of APA faculty, remains largely rhetoric.[107] Low levels of APA faculty recruitment may also be an unintended consequence of the "model minority" stereotype, according to which APAs are "overrepresented" in higher education and "not in need" of affirmative action policies.

Like other faculty of color and white women, APA faculty experience an unsupportive climate in higher education. Studies on the "revolving door," the "chilly climate," and campus climates in general disclose the overt and subtle ways in which APAs are treated differently. Institutions often view diverse faculty members as replaceable parts rather than as long-term investments. APA faculty report little support or mentoring from their departments and a lack of respect for issues of importance to them. They are consulted when diversity issues arise, but rarely as colleagues with academic expertise. On those occasions when their specialization and skills *are* sought, they are expected to be "superstars." APAs generally carry a heavier workload than white male counterparts because of additional responsibilities for student advisement, committee service, and the preparation of new courses in response to student demands. APA faculty with inter-

ests in "new" scholarship, such as ethnic studies and women's studies, find their research is given less value in tenure, promotion, and merit decisions. Most are "solo" in their departments and frequently are viewed as tokens. APA faculty experience racial and sexual harassment from students and staff as well as other faculty.[108]

APA faculty also face bias in other areas. Their salaries generally are lower than those of their white counterparts, even when rank and college affiliation are taken into consideration. The low promotion and tenure rates of APA faculty raise serious questions about their "equal" treatment in higher education. APA faculty at one institution were asked by their respective chairs to delay their requests for promotion to enable non-APA colleagues to be put up before them. The fact that APAs from several ethnic groups and disciplines and in a range of higher education institutions, large and small, public and private, have charged bias in their tenure review indicates that the problem is widespread. The increasing number of cases involving female APA faculty implies an additional obstacle of sexual discrimination and suggests that women's growing presence on American campuses may be a challenge to traditional academe. Some cases, such as the one cited earlier in this section, were challenged successfully, but they reveal only the tip of the iceberg on bias against APAs. In many more cases, APAs, like other minority and female faculty, are unwilling to endure the long drawn out, often politicized and highly secretive battles against higher education institutions that are better funded and can afford to hire legal teams.[109]

Limited English proficiency is another issue faced by APAs that often is perceived rather than real. Many APA faculty find that the perception of deficiencies in English language competence, such as speaking with an Asian accent, can be used to restrict their career advancement. APAs have filed language and accent discrimination grievances with the EEOC in other employment areas. In addition, higher education institutions provide little support for those with real English language limitations, leaving it up to the individual faculty member, otherwise completely qualified, to find the means to overcome language difficulties. Finally, cultural biases in leadership styles and faculty participation can be career impediments when they contribute to the marginalization of APA faculty from important department and university committees.[110]

APAs seeking administrative positions in higher education encounter barriers. Many APAs assert that they are not being identified, mentored, or recruited for university management positions. Like faculty, they cite cultural biases, including disrespect for their leadership styles, perceived language limitations, such as speaking with an accent, and other forms of subtle discrimination as obstacles to their career advancement.[111] Most leadership training programs have failed to target APA faculty.

The discrepancy between APA faculty qualifications and scholarly achievements and their low tenure rate and underrepresentation in higher levels of university administration has drawn the attention of other researchers who have called for higher education to examine its policies and practices toward Asian Pacific Americans and the obstacles to their progress in the pipeline.[112] While opportunities for APAs in higher education employment do exist, structural barriers based on race, class, and gender, cultural biases, and questions of academic legitimacy in faculty research interests exist as well. The climate at many American campuses remains unwelcoming and affects the quality of the APA workplace environment. Hence, little evidence can be found of the "model minority" or of a "success story" in higher education employment of APAs. Consequently, most APAs support affirmative action. When the controversial Proposition 209, a California ballot initiative seeking to eliminate affirmative action in public employment, public education, and public contracting in the state, was passed by voters in November 1996, APAs voted 61 percent against the measure statewide and 76 percent against it in the four Southern California county areas where the largest number of APAs reside. The latter poll found bipartisan APA opposition to Proposition 209.[113] Although APAs have different opinions about whether affirmative action helps or hurts their educational access and employment, most APAs conclude that affirmative action or alternative policies and programs to ensure equal opportunities will continue to be necessary until an equitable society is achieved.[114]

PART III: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Asian Pacific Americans are a complex and dynamic population comprising many different ethnic groups. Some APAs share similar cultures, socioeconomic backgrounds, and experiences in the United States, and some differ significantly. APAs include Hawaiians, who are indigenous to the United States, some communities with more than a century of history in America, and new immigrants and refugees who arrived very recently. Their composition and definition remain fluid.

While the term "APA" implies commonalities within this community, it also obscures differences within and among ethnic groups that require attention. Disaggregating data on APAs helps identify issues that may be

overlooked by educators, researchers, and policy makers. Thus, collecting both aggregated and disaggregated data on APAs and the ethnic groups within the APA category is critical to understanding and serving this segment of the U.S. population.

Changes in U.S. immigration and refugee policies since 1965 have transformed the APA community into one of the fastest growing and most diverse racial/ethnic groups in the United States. New APA communities have changed the ethnic composition and broadened the range of socioeconomic characteristics within the APA population. They also have had an impact on American institutions—especially education and social services. While recent arrivals have benefited from civil rights legislation, APAs continue to experience racial discrimination and other biases that limit their advancement and rewards, irrespective of high educational attainment. The result is slower rates of career advancement and encounters with the "glass ceiling" in many professions.

From their initial settlements in the mid-19th century to the present, APAs have sought access and equity in education and have challenged discriminatory treatment in the courts, the workplace, and educational settings. Their actions have resulted in a number of landmark Supreme Court cases that have helped redefine equal treatment in American education and which have benefited other Americans.

Historically, APAs have been perceived as "yellow and brown hordes." Only recently have APAs been seen as a "model minority" whose educational achievements, it is argued, derive from their "Asian cultures" or "immigrant ethos." New research provides alternative interpretations as to why APAs concentrate significant effort on education and gives greater attention to structural and societal factors in explaining APA educational trends. When asked, APAs express the belief that education is a necessary means to achieve social mobility in this racially stratified society and serves as a "hedge" against discrimination; rarely do APAs cite some cultural tenet regarding the importance of education. New studies also give attention to the social costs APAs bear in trying to comply with the "model minority" image and to the multiple ways in which students respond to the stereotype. Some APA ethnic groups are at risk educationally, a fact that challenges the notion of the "model minority." More research is needed to illuminate the complexities and disparities in APAs' educational progress.

Over the past three decades, the APA population changed from being primarily U.S. born to being predominantly foreign born—a population of new immigrants and refugees who speak languages other than English. APAs live in every region of the United States, but they reside primarily in six states. Most APAs live "inside urbanized areas," which are high-cost/high-income locales. Most live as married-couple families in larger households than the average for the U.S. population and for whites. They also live in more crowded conditions and pay more for their housing, both in home ownership and in rent, than whites and the U.S. population as a whole.

APAs' economic profile is complex and diverse. Any analysis of their economic progress must take into account their concentration in high-cost/high-income areas, their larger family size, and the number of wage earners per family. APAs are significantly more economically secure than other peoples of color, but as individuals and families, they have not reached parity with whites in terms of median family income, per capita income, or poverty level. High poverty rates among certain APA groups, especially Southeast Asians and Pacific Islanders, deserve special attention. The image of APAs as a "success story" obscures concern and support for those within the population who are at risk.

APAs have a higher rate of labor participation than the general population and work in a wide range of occupational categories. The U.S. Census categories are unsatisfactory in interpreting APA employment. "Manager," for example, combines data on salaried administrators in the private and nonprofit sectors with the self-employed; self-employed APAs may own economically marginal small family businesses or large and profitable high-tech firms.

Overall, APAs have high educational attainment compared with other racial/ethnic groups. APA data reveal significant differences within and among APA groups as well as a bimodal education pattern that reflects a socio-economically bifurcated population. In addition to having high rates of college completion, APAs have high numbers of individuals who have completed the eighth grade or less. Southeast Asian groups, many of whom arrived as refugees, and Pacific Islander groups, most of whom are native to the United States and have been educated here, are educationally at risk. APA women, on average, obtain less education than their male counterparts.

APA men and women have higher expectations and are more academically prepared for college than other groups. Those with limited English skills, however, have fewer choices in the education pipeline.

APA enrollment in higher education has increased considerably since 1970 and mirrors growth in the population. APAs are more diverse in their fields of study than the "model minority" image purports and

Photo Credit: The University of Texas at Dallas

can be found in all disciplines and fields at the bachelor's and master's levels. Business, for example, was their primary major at the B.A. and M.A. levels. APA doctoral choices are becoming more diverse but remain concentrated in the sciences and engineering. These foci reflect the predominance of males in Ph.D. studies and the perception that more secure employment opportunities exist in engineering and the sciences than in the liberal arts.

APA doctoral enrollment is not commensurate with the numbers of APAs who earn B.A.'s and M.A.'s. APAs are five times more likely to obtain a first-professional degree than a doctorate. Medicine, law, and dentistry may have greater value for APAs than doctorates, lending support to the argument that APAs believe education is an economic necessity.

The APA education pipeline is not free flowing. Obstacles exist for some APA groups at the B.A. level, for women generally, and for all APAs at the doctoral level. APA men and women are well-represented at the associate and bachelor's degree levels. APA women have lagged behind APA men at all levels. Beliefs in women's proper place being in the domestic and not the public sphere, the stereotyping of APA women as "exotics" and not academic, the predominance of men in the curriculum and their preferential treatment in the classroom, and other aspects of the "chilly climate" that women face generally in higher education impede APA women in the pipeline.

Inhospitable classroom and campus climates, the lack of diverse faculty as mentors, the selectivity of the Ph.D. process, and the "model minority" image are other explanations for the modest representation of APAs at the doctorate level. Thus, while APAs are taking advantage of educational opportunities, they also are encountering barriers. Affirmative action policies remain imperative for APA access to higher education, especially to graduate studies. The quality of APAs' academic life also is a concern.

Until recently, APA faculty data included Asian-educated and -trained faculty, most of whom are in the sciences and engineering. The inclusion of non-resident aliens or foreign students within the APA category obscures information about the state of APAs in higher education. Great disparity exists between the proportion of APA faculty and the proportion of APA students on American campuses, and there is little reason for optimism in closing this gap in the near future without the active and knowledgeable intervention of colleges and universities.

APA employment in higher education is not commensurate with the number of doctorate degrees earned by APAs. Many APA doctoral recipients choose private industry rather than higher education employment. They have demonstrated a modest increase in their numbers as faculty, but recent negative trends bear close attention. APA faculty have the widest gender gap of all racial/ethnic groups. APAs also have a low tenure rate. APA faculty recruitment, retention, and renewal are issues to consider as senior faculty retire and as smaller numbers of junior faculty are recruited to replace them. In addition, lack of mentorship, workload issues, and unequal treatment in the areas of tenure, promotion, and salary hinder APAs in the higher education employment pipeline.

APAs make up less than 1 percent of higher education administrators. Again, the relatively high educational attainment of APAs does not translate into comparable economic rewards or career advancement. Obstructions in the path to university management include cultural biases, perceived language limitations, accent discrimination, and lack of recruitment and mentorship. The small numbers of APAs who serve as university and college administrators and presidents suggest the reality of the "glass ceiling."

Asian Pacific Americans are changing the education landscape. Their educational accomplishments are significant, but they

are not shared by all APAs. Educational differences along the lines of gender, within an APA ethnic group, and among APA groups require attention. Barriers and unequal rewards remain in the education pipeline and in employment. At a time when the need for affirmative action is being challenged seriously, one need only consider the level of educational attainment and higher education employment of all people of color to conclude that equity has yet to be achieved. The educational trends of African Americans, Latinas/os, and American Indians, both men and women, are of critical concern. This special focus has given attention to Asian Pacific Americans and their complexities and disparities vis á vis higher education. The following is a set of recommendations to address some of the issues raised in this study. The recommendations are not in order of priority.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendation 1:
Demythologizing APAs as a "Model Minority"

Strong faculty, administrative, and staff development should be organized on campuses to demythologize Asian Pacific Americans as a "model minority" and to de-"orientalize" their educational aspirations and choices. Faculty, administrators, and staff must develop broader and more "humanized" views of this group and must understand the complexities and variabilities within the APA population, many members of which require attention and academic assistance. APA students and faculty are complex individuals and should not be treated on the basis of predetermined stereotypes.

Recommendation 2:
Support for Affirmative Action

Racial and gender discrimination and other biases still exist. Affirmative action policies and programs in the education system still are needed to remedy historical disadvantages and continuing unequal treatment in American society and its institutions, including the education system. APAs should be included in affirmative action remedies. Institutions should revisit their policies and programs on a regular basis and revise them to address new population groups and expanding definitions of equity and high-quality education. A diverse student body, faculty, staff, and administration benefits all members of the higher education community, as well as society at large.

Photo Credit: State University of New York at Binghamton

Recommendation 3:
Changing the Campus Climate

All colleges and universities should be positive, thoughtful, and understanding environments for APA students, faculty, and staff, regardless of their numbers on campus. All colleges and universities should make every effort to include the APA experience in their faculty and staff development. Numerous campus climate reports have proposed recommendations to address the "chilly climate" for minorities and women. All higher education institutions should ensure that APAs are included in these remedies and that APA concerns are addressed.

All colleges and universities need to distinguish between real English language deficiency and perceived deficiency—for example, bias against Asian accents—and should prevent language bias in the recruitment and retention of students, faculty, staff, and administrators. All colleges and universities should establish open lines of communication among faculty, administrators, APA students, and the community to ensure and encourage dialogue and a shared campus community.

Recommendation 4:
Language Development Programs

Many APAs need strong English language development programs. Colleges and universities should collaborate with their K–12 partners and local APA communities to develop English as a Second Language (ESL) intervention programs for students who otherwise succeed in school. Further, high priority should be given to the recruitment, training, and retention of APA K–12 teachers to assist the development of APA children. The narrowing of APAs' educational and career choices because of lack of training in English should not be tolerated. Successful APA students who focus on math and science should be required to excel in English language competency as well and should not be allowed to progress under the illusion that English language skills are not critical to these fields or to their futures. Acquiring English language proficiency involves the cooperation and support of K–12 education students and their families, academic counselors, faculty, and the education system in general.

Greater support should be given to the enhancement of existing Asian language

programs on American campuses and to the development of language programs that reflect the new Asian language groups in the United States.

Recommendation 5:
Curriculum Transformation and Infusion
To prepare all students for a multicultural and global world, all colleges and universities should ensure that their academic programs reflect the diversity within the United States and the world at large, and not simply the diversity in their local communities. All colleges and universities should ensure that APAs are included properly and treated within their mission and programmatic planning. The experiences and roles of APAs in American society should be a part of the curriculum at all colleges and universities. Teacher education programs and related training, in particular, need to incorporate the APA experience in their curriculum and practice.

Departments, programs, and courses in Asian American studies should be encouraged and supported. In addition, APA-related materials should be infused throughout the curriculum and all institutional programs. The percentage of APAs on campus or in the local community should not be the rationale for including or excluding curricula on this segment of the American mosaic.

Recommendation 6:
Focus on High-Risk APA Groups
Special attention should be given to high-risk ethnic groups within the APA population. The large numbers of Southeast Asians who are at risk likely are so as a consequence of their being refugees and poor; adjustment issues may take several decades to overcome. For Pacific Islanders, risk is more complicated given that for the most part, their entire lives and educational experiences have been within the American context. More focused research and intervention programs should be designed to assist these high-risk APA groups.

Recommendation 7:
Focus on APA Women and Gender Inequity
All colleges and universities should focus on the limited representation and quality of the educational experience of women generally and of APA women specifically. APA women should be included properly and treated equally in the curriculum and in all aspects of academic programming and campus life. Special attention should be given to the recruitment and retention of APA women, especially in graduate studies and as faculty and administrators. Remedying gender inequity for APA women in higher education will require the collaboration and support of K–12 education, students and their families, academic counselors, faculty, and the education system in general.

Recommendation 8:
Doctoral Recruitment and Retention
Strong recruitment and retention programs should be designed at doctoral degree granting universities to encourage APAs to pursue doctorates. Articulation programs should be developed with four-year institutions that enroll large numbers of APA students. All colleges and universities should identify and mentor qualified APA undergraduates for opportunities in graduate studies. Special attention should be given to ensure representation of APA women and of diverse APA ethnic groups. Colleges and universities should distinguish between their Asian Pacific American graduate students and Asian foreign students. All doctoral programs should provide the necessary supports to their APA students, including faculty mentors, fellowships, research and publication opportunities, and other aid, to ensure their successful completion of the degree.

Recommendation 9:
Opening the Higher Education Employment Pipeline
Strong faculty, staff, and administrator recruitment programs should be developed at all colleges and universities to ensure an open employment pipeline. Special attention should be given to APA women at all levels, to APA men at the junior faculty levels, and to diverse APA ethnic groups. All colleges and universities should identify structural, attitudinal, and programmatic barriers that may account for the poor hiring and tenure rates of APA faculty and the lack of APA administrators.

Development of APA administrators, especially at the levels of dean and higher, needs to be a top priority in higher education. National higher education organizations, government agencies, and foundations should concentrate effort in the development and mentorship of APA leaders, and strong leadership training programs should be developed and supported.

Recommendation 10:
Fostering Research on APAs
More data and better qualitative and quantitative research on Asian Pacific Americans should be collected and supported. Very little is known about APAs in general or about high-risk APA groups. Aggregated data, most commonly found in educational studies, are replete with problems. All institutional research offices in higher education should be encouraged to disaggregate campus data on APAs. ■

Endnotes

[1] U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Trends in Racial/Ethnic Enrollment in Higher Education. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1990, 14.

[2] In this special focus, including text, Tables 1A through 11A and Figures 1 through 7, "white" refers to non-Hispanic whites, "Hispanic origin" refers to Hispanics of any race, "American Indian" includes American Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts, and "black" is used interchangeably with African American. Asian Pacific Americans are defined in the overview. The ACE report and tables may use slightly different definitions.

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[6] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *We the American: Pacific Islanders*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, September 1993.

[7] See, for example, Root, Maria P. P., Ed., *Racially Mixed People in America*. Newbury Park: Sage, 1992.

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[9] For a discussion on "contexts of reception," see Portes, Alejandro and Ruben G. Rumbaut. *Immigrant America*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1990, especially 85–93.

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[14] Hing, 1993, and Barringer, Gardner and Levin, 1993.

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[16] Hing, 1993, and *We the Americans: Asians*, 1993. See also Chan, Kenyon S. and Shirley Hune. "Racialization and Panethnicity: From Asians in America to Asian Americans." In Hawley, W. and A. Jackson, Eds., *Toward a Common Destiny: Improving Race and Ethnic Relations in America*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1995, 393–404.

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[18] See U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. *Civil Rights Issues Facing Asian Americans in the 1990s*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1992.

[19] U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. *Recent Activities against Citizens and Residents of Asian Descent*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1986. Clearing House Publication No. 88. See also *Civil Rights Issues Facing Asian Americans in the 1990s*, 1992, 22–48.

[20] *Civil Rights Issues Facing Asian Americans in the 1990s*, 1992, 13–156; Kim, Pan Suk and Gregory B. Lewis, "Asian Americans in the Public Service: Success, Diversity, and Discrimination." *Public Administration Review* 54:3, May–June, 1994, 285–90; and Woo, Deborah. *The Glass Ceiling and Asian Americans*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor, Glass Ceiling Commission, 1994.

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[23] Wollenberg, 1976, 48–72.

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[54] Cho, 1997, and Flanigan, Jackson L., Michael D. Richardson, Kenneth E. Lane and Dennis W. VanBerkum. "Pennsylvania v. EEOC: Tenure Decisions and Confidentiality." *Thought and Action* 11:1, Spring 1995, 79–95.

[55] For a detailed analysis of the evolution of the "model minority" stereotype in the media, see Osajima, Keith. "Asian Americans as the Model Minority: An Analysis of the Popular Press Image in the 1960's and 1980's." In Okihiro, Gary, Shirley Hune, Arthur Hansen and John Liu, Eds., *Reflections on Shattered Windows.* Pullman: Washington State University Press, 1988, 165–74.

[56] For example, the television program "60 Minutes" manipulated a 1987 feature on "Why are Asian Americans doing so exceptionally well in school?" Boulder High School (Colorado) was dropped from the feature when it was found that many Hmong and Cambodian students were teenage mothers or had less than exceptional test scores. Millions of Americans thus were presented only with the desired APA academic success story profile. (See Walker-Moffat, 1995, 8–9.) Features on Asian Americans as a "success" group began in the late 1960s but were focused especially on students during the 1980s. See, for example, Brand, David. "Cover Story: The New Whiz Kids." *Time,* 31 August 1987, 42–51; Butterfield, Fox. "Why Asians Are Going to the Head of the Class." *New York Times Magazine,* 3 August 1986, 19–24; and Graubard, Stephen G. "Why Do Asian Pupils Win Those Prizes?" *New York Times,* 29 January 1988, A35. Some recent accounts are giving attention to at-risk APA students as well as National Merit scholars. (See Seo, Diane. "In School, A Minority No longer." *Los Angeles Times,* 26 December 1995, A1 and A30.

[57] For more on the "model minority" myth, see Chan and Hune, 1995.

[58] Lee, 1996 and *The Diversity Project: Final Report,* 21–7. UC Berkeley: Institute for Social Change, 1991.

[59] Barringer, Herbert R., David T. Takeuchi and Peter Xenos. "Education, Occupational Prestige, and Income of Asian Americans." *Sociology of Education* 63, 1990, 27–43; Kim and Lewis, 1994; Tang, Joyce. "The Career Attainment of Caucasian and Asian Engineers." *The Sociological Quarterly* 34:3, 1993, 467–96; and Woo, 1994.

[60] Lee, 1996, 52–4.

[61] Steinberg, Stephen. *The Ethnic Myth.* Boston: Beacon Press, 1989, 270–1.

[62] For a discussion of the cultural ecology school and its proponents (J. Ogbu, M. E. Matute-Bianchi, M. A. Gibson, and others), see Lee, 1996, 54–6.

[63] Solorzano, Daniel, and Ronald Solorzano. "The Chicano Educational Experience: A Proposed Framework for Effective Schools in Chicano Communities." *Educational Policy,* 9, 1995, 293–314.

[64] For a more detailed discussion of the work of Asian American scholars, see Chan and Hune, 1995.

[65] Lee, 1996, 54; Leung, S. Alvin. "Factors Affecting the Career Aspirations of Asian Americans." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, August 1989; Seymour, Elaine, and Nancy M. Hewitt. *Talking about Leaving: Factors Contributing to High Attrition Rates among Science, Mathematics and Engineering Undergraduate Majors.* Final Report to the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation on an Ethnographic Inquiry at Seven Institutions. Boulder: Ethnography and Assessment Research Bureau of Sociological Research, University of Colorado, 1994; and Sue, S., and S. Okazaki, "Asian American Educational Achievements: A Phenomenon in Search of an Explanation." *American Psychologist* 45:8, 1990, 913–20.

[66] Chan, K.S. "Sociocultural Aspects of Anger: Impact on Minority Children." In M. Furlong and D. Smith, Eds. *Anger and Cynical Hostility in Children and Adolescents: Assessment, Prevention, and Treatment Strategies.* Brandon, VT: Clinical Psychology Publishing, 1994; and Min, Pyong Gap. "Korean Americans." In Min, Pyong Gap, Ed., *Asian Americans: Contemporary Trends and Issues, 22A.* Thousand Oaks: Sage, 1995.

[67] Wong, Morrison. "The Education of White, Chinese, Filipino, and Japanese Students: A Look at 'High School and Beyond.'" *Sociological Perspectives* 33, 1990, 355–74.

[68] Lee, 1996, and Wong, 1990.

[69] Hune, Shirley. "Higher Education as Gendered Space: Asian American Women and Everyday Inequities." In Ronai, Carol, Barbara A. Zsembik and Joe R. Feagin, Eds., *Everyday Sexism in the Third Millennium.* New York: Routledge, 1997; Kosasa-Terry, Geraldine E. "Localizing Discourse." In Ng, Franklin, Judy Yung, Stephen S. Fugita, and Elaine H. Kim, Eds. In *New Visions in Asian American Studies.* Pullman: Washington State University Press, 1994, 211–21; and Osjima, Keith. "Hidden Injuries of Race." In Revilla, Linda A., Gail M. Nomura, Shawn Wong, and Shirley Hune, Eds., *Bearing Dreams, Shaping Visions.* Pullman: Washington State University Press, 1993, 81–91

[70] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *United States Population Estimates by Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin, with Median Age.* 1996.

[71] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *1990 Census of Population, Social and Economic Characteristics (CP-2–1),* 1993, (Table 105).

[72] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Statistical Brief. *The Nation's Asian and Pacific Islander Population—1994,* SB/95–24. November 1995.

[73] The "other APA" category includes important but relatively small communities, including Hmong, Laotian, Thai, Samoan, Guamanian, Burmese, Sri Lankan, Malayan, Indonesian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Tongan, Fijian, Palauian, Tahitian, and other distinct cultural, language, and national groups from throughout the Pacific Rim.

[74] For a more detailed discussion of the demographic shift within the APA community since 1970, see Chan and Hune, 1995.

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[41] *1990 Census of the Population*, 1993 (Tables 1, 9, and 11).

[42] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *We the Americans: Foreign Born*, September 1993.

[43] *We the Americans: Asians* and *We the Americans: Pacific Islanders*, September 1993.

[44] Calculated from the *1990 Census of Population*, 1993 (Table 106). Linguistic isolation is defined by the U.S. Bureau of the Census as persons in households in which no one 14 years old or over speaks only English and no one who speaks a language other than English speaks English "very well."

[45] *1990 Census of Population*, 1993 (Table 9). "Inside Urbanized Areas" is defined by the U.S. Census as central places and urban fringe areas of 50,000 or more persons.

[46] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Statistical Brief. *Housing in Metropolitan Areas: Asian or Pacific Islander Households*, SB/95-6, April, 1995.

[47] *1990 Census of Population*, 1993. Examining demographic data, particularly on economic matters, within either inside urbanized areas or the West reveals striking differences from aggregate U.S. data and shall be referred to from time to time in this special focus. The Bureau of the Census includes the following states within the West: Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming.

[48] *1990 Census of Population*, 1993.

[49] *Housing in Metropolitan Areas*, 1995. A metropolitan area, as defined by the U.S. Census, is a larger geographical area with a large population nucleus. It is usually a broader area than an urbanized area. Ninety-four percent of APAs live in metropolitan areas. The Bureau of the Census defines "crowded" households as more than one person per room.

[50] *Housing in Metropolitan Areas*, 1995.

[51] Income data cited from the 1990 Census reflect 1989 dollars.

[52] *1990 Census of Population*, 1993 (Tables 48, 90, and 92).

[53] *1990 Census of Population*, 1993 (Tables 47 and 109).

[54] *1990 Census of Population*, 1993 (Tables 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11).

[55] *1990 Census of Population*, 1993 (Table 111).

[56] *1990 Census of Population*, 1993 (Tables 49 and 112).

[57] See Ong, Paul, lead author. *Beyond Asian American Poverty: Community Economic Development Policies and Strategies*. Los Angeles: LEAP Asian Pacific American Public Policy Institute, 1993, for a study of low-income APAs and federal, state, and local strategies that could be undertaken to improve their workplace opportunities.

[58] *We the Americans: Asians* and *We the Americans: Pacific Islanders*, 1993.

[59] *We the Americans: Asians*, 1993, 6.

[60] Woo, 1994, 54.

[61] Park, Edward Jang-Woo. "Asians Matter: Asian American Entrepreneurs in the Silicon Valley High Technology Industry." In Hing, Bill Ong, and Ronald Lee Eds. *Reframing the Immigration Debate*. Los Angeles: LEAP Asian Pacific, American Public Policy Institute and UCLA Asian American Studies Center, 1996, 155–77; Erasmus, Melanie. "Immigrant Entrepreneurs in The High-Tech Industry." In Hing and Lee, Eds., *Reframing the Immigration Debate*, 1996, 179–94; and Torres, Vicki, "A Hidden High-Tech Hot Spot," *Los Angeles Times*, 18 December 1996, A1 and A26.

[62] Woo, 1994, 38–39; Huynh, Craig Trinh-Phat. "Vietnamese-Owned Manicure Businesses in Los Angeles." In Hing and Lee, Eds. *Reframing the Immigration Debate*, 1996, 196–203; Lee, Gen Leigh. "Chinese-Cambodian Donut Makers in Orange County: Case Studies of Family Labor and Socioeconomic Adaptations." In Hing and Lee, Eds. *Reframing the Immigration Debate*, 1996, 205–19; and Light, Ivan and Edna Bonacich. *Immigrant Entrepreneurs*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1988, especially chapter 17.

[63] Woo, 1994, 38–39, and Light and Bonacich, 1988.

[64] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1994 Current Population Survey. *The Asian and Pacific Islander Population in the United States*, March 1994.

[65] 1994 Current Population Survey.

[66] 1994 Current Population Survey (Table 5).

[67] 1994 Current Population Survey (Table 8).

[68] Smith, Thomas. *Issues in Focus: Minorities in Higher Education*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics, 1996.

[69] College Board. *Profile of College-Bound Students in the High School Class of 1996*. Princeton: College Board, 1996.

[70] Smith, 1996. The National Commission on Excellence in Education defines the "New Basics" curriculum as a core composed of four units of English and three units each of science, social studies, and mathematics. See *A Nation at Risk*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1983.

[71] Smith, 1996.

[72] College Board. *College Board Reports Continuing Upward Trend in Average Scores on SAT I*. Princeton: College Board, 1996.

[73] Kowarsky, Judy. "Preparation for Transfer: An Orange County Community College Case Study." In Hurtado, Aida, Richard Figueroa and Eugene E. Garcia, Eds. *Strategic Interventions in Education: Expanding the Latina/Latino Pipeline*. Santa Cruz, CA: University of California, Santa Cruz, 1996, 214–67 and *Asian Pacific Americans in the CSU: A Follow-Up Report*. The California State University, Office of the Chancellor: Report of the Asian Pacific American Education Advisory Committee, 1994.

[74] See also, Hune, 1997.

[75] 1990 Census of Population, Social and Economic Characteristics, 1993.

[76] Calculated from *15th Annual Status Report Minorities in Higher Education 1996–1997*, 1997, Table 3.

[77] Calculated from *15th Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education 1996–1997*, 1997, Table 5.

[78] U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data system (IPEDS), "Completions" survey. Some categories used in this supplement are aggregations of more definitive categories and are more inclusive then the data reported annually in Table 14 of ACE's *Minorities in Higher Education Status Reports*. "Social Science" includes social sciences, history, and psychology. "Sciences"

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include life sciences, physical sciences, and math. "Engineering" includes engineering and computer/information sciences. "Humanities" include English language and literature/letters, foreign languages and literatures, liberal arts and sciences, general studies, and humanities, communications, philosophy and religion, and theological studies/religious vocations. "Arts" include performing and visual arts.

[93] Hsia, Jayjia. *Asian Americans in Higher Education and at Work.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1988, 129.

[94] U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions" Survey.

[95] First-professional degrees consist of eleven subfields, including medicine, law, dentistry, and divinity.

[96] U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions" Survey, 1993–94, and "Consolidated" Survey, 1994.

[97] Gibson, Margaret A. *Accommodation Without Assimilation.* Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1988 and Mau, Rosalind Y. "Barriers to Higher Education for Asian/Pacific-American Females." *The Urban Review* 22, 1990, 183–97.

[98] Hune, 1997.

[99] Cho, 1997.

[100] See, for example, Astin, Alexander W., Jesus G. Trevino, and Tamara L. Wingard. *The UCLA Campus Climate for Diversity.* Los Angeles: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA, 1991; *The Diversity Project: Final Report.* Berkeley: Institute for the Study of Social Change, University of California, 1991; Justus, Joyce Bennett, Sandra B. Freitag, and L. Leann Parker. *The University of California in the 21st Century: Successful Approaches to Faculty Diversity.* Berkeley: Office of the President, University of California System, 1987; Osajima, Keith. "Breaking the Silence: Race and the Educational Experiences of Asian American College Students." In Michele Foster, Ed. *Readings on Equal Education.* New York: AMS Press, 1991, 115–134; Swoboda, Marian J., Ed. *Retaining and Promoting Women and Minority Faculty Members: Problems and Possibilities.* Madison: The University of Wisconsin System, 1990; and Chan and Wang, 1991.

[101] Carter, Deborah J. and Eileen M. O'Brien. *Employment and Hiring Patterns for Faculty of Color.* American Council on Education, Research Briefs 4:6, 1. Washington, DC, 1993.

[102] U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. *EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information Survey 1975–1991* counted non-resident alien full-time faculty within the major racial/ethnic categories. In 1994 the data shifted to the U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions" survey, 1993–94, and "Consolidated" survey, 1994, in which non-resident aliens were separated into a distinct category. They account for 2 percent of full-time faculty, or approximately 11,000 persons who previously would have been distributed among other racial/ethnic categories. How many of these persons are of Asian descent is unknown. This may account for part of the decrease in the number of APA male faculty in 1993. See Table 20.

[103] Zimbler, Linda J. *Faculty and Instructional Staff Who Are They and What Do They Do?* Washington, DC: Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Survey Report, 1993 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty, 1994, 7, 14–15.

[104] Carter, Deborah, and Reginald Wilson. *Fourteenth Annual Status Report Minorities in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: American Council on Education, 1995–1996, 1996, 84.

[105] Woo, 1994.

[106] Ottinger, Cecilia, Robin Sikula and Charles Washington. *Production of Minority Doctorates.* American Council on Education Research Briefs, 4:8, 8. Washington, DC, 1993.

[107] Smith, Daryl G., with Lisa E. Wolf and Bonnie E. Busenberg. *Achieving Faculty Diversity: Debunking the Myths.* Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities, 1996.

[108] "Asian, Hispanic, and Native American Task Force Report." University of Maryland, College Park, 1996; Carter and O'Brien, 1993; Hune, 1997; Sandler, Bernice R. and Roberta M. Hall. *The Campus Climate Revisited: Chilly for Women Faculty, Administrators, and Graduate Students.* Washington, DC: Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges, 1986; and Swoboda, 1990.

[109] "Asian, Hispanic, and Native American Task Force." 1996; Cho, Sumi K. "Confronting the Myths: Asian Pacific American Faculty in Higher Education." In Wang, Ling-Chi, Ed. *Affirmative Action and Discrimination: Ninth Annual Asian Pacific Americans in Higher Education Conference Proceedings.* Asian Pacific Americans in Higher Education, 1996; Cho, 1997; and Minami, Dale. "Guerilla War at UCLA: Political and Legal Dimensions of the Tenure Battle." *Amerasia Journal* 16, 1990, 81–107.

[110] "Asian, Hispanic, and Native American Task Force Report," 1996; and Woo, 1994, 47–52, 148–50.

[111] Miller, Susan Katz. "Asian-Americans Bump Against Glass Ceilings." *Science* 258, 13 November 1992, 1224–8; and Woo, 1994, 90–96.

[112] Escueta, Eugenia, and Eileen O'Brien. *Asian Americans in Higher Education: Trends and Issues.* American Council on Education Research Briefs 2:4, 9. Washington, DC, 1991.

[113] "Affirmative Action: Controversy in California." *Crosscurrents,* 19:2, Fall/Winter 1996 (UCLA). At this writing, a court injunction has prevented Proposition 209 from being implemented by the State of California.

[114] For examples of APA responses to the affirmative action debate see Chin, Gabriel, Sumi Cho, Jerry Kang, and Frank Wu, 1996 and *Perspectives on Affirmative Action.* Los Angeles: LEAP Asian Pacific American Public Policy Institute, 1996.

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Table 1

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity, 1975 to 1995

	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
Year	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
ALL RACES							
1975	26,387	26.3	21,326	80.8	6,935	32.5	52.5
1976	26,919	26.7	21,677	80.5	7,181	33.1	53.4
1977	27,331	26.1	22,008	80.5	7,142	32.5	52.0
1978	27,647	25.3	22,309	80.7	6,995	31.4	51.4
1979	27,974	25.0	22,421	80.1	6,991	31.2	51.6
1980	28,957	25.6	23,413	80.9	7,400	31.6	51.1
1981	28,965	26.2	23,343	80.6	7,575	32.5	51.7
1982	28,846	26.6	23,291	80.7	7,678	33.0	52.7
1983	28,580	26.2	22,988	80.4	7,477	32.5	52.8
1984	28,031	27.1	22,870	81.6	7,591	33.2	53.0
1985	27,122	27.8	22,349	82.4	7,537	33.7	54.3
1986	26,512	28.2	21,768	82.1	7,477	34.3	55.0
1987	25,950	29.6	21,118	81.4	7,693	36.4	56.5
1988	25,733	30.3	20,900	81.2	7,791	37.3	57.5
1989	25,261	30.9	20,461	81.0	7,804	38.1	57.9
1990	24,852	32.0	20,311	82.3	7,964	39.1	58.9
1991	24,572	33.3	19,883	80.9	8,172	41.1	60.7
1992	24,278	34.4	19,921	82.1	8,343	41.9	65.6
1993	25,522	33.8	20,844	81.7	8,630	41.4	65.3
1994	25,254	34.6	20,581	81.5	8,729	42.4	66.9
1995	24,900	34.3	20,125	80.8	8,539	42.4	67.1
WHITE							
1975	22,703	26.9	18,883	83.2	6,116	32.4	52.7
1976	23,119	27.1	19,045	82.4	6,276	33.0	53.5
1977	23,430	26.5	19,291	82.3	6,209	32.2	52.1
1978	23,650	25.7	19,526	82.6	6,077	31.1	51.3
1979	23,895	25.6	19,616	82.1	6,120	31.2	51.7
1980	24,482	26.2	20,214	82.6	6,423	31.8	51.4
1981	24,486	26.7	20,123	82.2	6,549	32.5	52.1
1982	24,206	27.2	19,944	82.4	6,694	33.1	53.1
1983	23,899	27.0	19,643	82.2	6,463	32.9	53.4
1984	23,347	28.0	19,373	83.0	6,256	33.7	53.8
1985	22,632	28.7	18,916	83.6	6,500	34.4	55.3
1986	22,020	28.6	18,291	83.1	6,307	34.5	55.5
1987	21,493	30.2	17,689	82.3	6,483	36.6	57.1
1988	21,261	31.3	17,491	82.3	6,659	38.1	58.6
1989	20,825	31.8	17,089	82.1	6,631	38.8	58.9
1990	20,393	32.5	16,823	82.5	6,635	39.4	60.1
1991	19,980	34.1	16,324	81.7	6,813	41.7	62.3
1992	19,671	35.2	16,379	83.3	6,916	42.2	67.0
1993	20,493	34.5	16,989	82.9	7,074	41.6	66.5
1994	20,171	35.3	16,670	82.6	7,118	42.7	67.6
1995	19,866	35.3	16,269	81.9	7,011	43.1	68.3

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Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *School Enrollment–Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1995*, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P-20 Series, 1996.

Note: College participation rates were calculated using the total population and high school graduates as the bases. The ever-enrolled-in-college participation rate includes 14- to 24-year-olds who either were enrolled in college or had completed one or more years of college. The change in the educational attainment question and the college completion categories from "four or more years of college" to "at least some college" in 1992 caused an increase of approximately 5 percentage points in the proportion of 14- to 24-year-old high school graduates who had enrolled in or who had completed one or more years of college. The high school completion rates were calculated using the total population as the base. High school graduates are persons who have completed four years of high school or more for 1975 to 1991. Beginning in 1992, they were persons whose highest degree was a high school diploma (including equivalency) or higher. Data for 1986 and later use a revised tabulation system. Improvements in edits and population estimation procedures caused slight changes in estimates for 1986. Data for 1980 through 1992 use 1980 Census–based estimates, and data for 1993 and later use 1990 Census–based estimates.

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Table 1 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity, 1975 to 1995

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
AFRICAN AMERICAN							
1975	3,213	20.7	2,081	64.8	665	32.0	48.1
1976	3,315	22.6	2,239	67.5	749	33.5	50.4
1977	3,387	21.3	2,286	67.5	721	31.5	46.9
1978	3,452	20.1	2,340	67.8	694	29.7	47.8
1979	3,510	19.8	2,356	67.1	696	29.5	48.4
1980	3,721	19.2	2,592	69.7	715	27.6	45.9
1981	3,778	19.9	2,678	70.9	750	28.0	44.8
1982	3,872	19.8	2,744	70.9	767	28.0	45.5
1983	3,865	19.2	2,740	70.9	741	27.0	45.0
1984	3,862	20.4	2,885	74.7	786	27.2	45.2
1985	3,716	19.8	2,810	75.6	734	26.1	43.8
1986	3,653	22.2	2,795	76.5	812	29.1	47.8
1987	3,603	22.8	2,739	76.0	823	30.0	48.7
1988	3,568	21.1	2,680	75.1	752	28.1	46.6
1989	3,559	23.5	2,708	76.1	835	30.8	49.1
1990	3,520	25.4	2,710	77.0	894	33.0	48.0
1991	3,504	23.6	2,630	75.1	828	31.5	46.0
1992	3,521	25.3	2,625	74.6	886	33.8	53.3
1993	3,666	24.5	2,747	74.9	897	32.7	54.0
1994	3,661	27.3	2,818	77.0	1,001	35.5	59.2
1995	3,625	27.3	2,788	76.9	988	35.4	58.0
HISPANIC[a]							
1975	1,446	20.4	832	57.5	295	35.5	50.8
1976	1,551	19.9	862	55.6	309	35.8	48.9
1977	1,609	17.2	880	54.7	277	31.5	43.8
1978	1,672	15.2	935	55.9	254	27.2	43.2
1979	1,754	16.6	968	55.2	292	30.2	45.7
1980	2,033	16.1	1,099	54.1	327	29.8	47.3
1981	2,052	16.7	1,144	55.8	342	29.9	45.8
1982	2,001	16.8	1,153	57.6	337	29.2	47.3
1983	2,025	17.2	1,110	54.8	349	31.4	48.4
1984	2,018	17.9	1,212	60.1	362	29.9	46.0
1985	2,221	16.9	1,396	62.9	375	26.9	46.7
1986	2,514	18.2	1,507	59.9	458	30.4	45.6
1987	2,592	17.6	1,597	61.6	455	28.5	44.2
1988	2,642	17.0	1,458	55.2	450	30.9	47.1
1989	2,818	16.1	1,576	55.9	453	28.7	43.6
1990	2,749	15.8	1,498	54.5	435	29.0	44.7
1991	2,874	18.0	1,498	52.1	516	34.4	47.6
1992	2,754	21.3	1,578	57.3	586	37.1	55.0
1993	3,663	21.6	2,049	60.9	728	35.5	55.6
1994	3,523	18.8	1,995	56.6	662	33.2	54.3
1995	3,603	20.7	2,112	58.6	745	35.3	55.8

[a] Hispanics may be of any race.

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Table 2

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1975 to 1995

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds: All Persons (thousands)	18- to 24-Year-Olds: Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Number Completed (thousands)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Completion Rate (percent)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
ALL RACES							
MEN							
1975	12,724	29.0	10,214	80.3	3,693	36.2	56.1
1976	13,012	28.2	10,312	79.2	3,673	35.6	55.7
1977	13,218	28.1	10,440	79.0	3,712	35.6	54.2
1978	13,385	27.1	10,614	79.3	3,621	34.1	52.6
1979	13,571	25.8	10,657	78.5	3,508	32.9	52.4
1980	14,107	26.3	11,125	78.9	3,717	33.4	51.4
1981	14,127	27.1	11,052	78.2	3,833	34.7	52.1
1982	14,083	27.2	11,120	79.0	3,837	34.5	53.0
1983	14,003	27.3	10,906	77.9	3,820	35.0	52.7
1984	13,744	28.6	10,914	79.4	3,929	36.0	53.6
1985	13,199	28.4	10,614	80.4	3,749	35.3	54.6
1986	12,921	28.7	10,338	80.0	3,702	35.8	54.4
1987	12,626	30.6	10,030	79.4	3,867	38.6	56.3
1988	12,491	30.2	9,832	78.7	3,770	38.3	56.6
1989	12,325	30.2	9,700	78.7	3,717	38.3	57.2
1990	12,134	32.3	9,778	80.6	3,922	40.1	58.0
1991	12,036	32.9	9,493	78.9	3,954	41.7	59.2
1992	11,965	32.7	9,576	80.0	3,912	40.9	64.1
1993	12,712	33.3	10,142	79.8	4,237	41.8	63.9
1994	12,557	33.1	9,970	79.4	4,152	41.6	64.9
1995	12,351	33.1	9,789	79.3	4,089	41.8	64.2
WOMEN							
1975	13,663	23.7	11,113	81.3	3,243	29.2	49.2
1976	13,907	25.2	11,365	81.7	3,508	30.9	51.4
1977	14,113	24.3	11,569	82.0	3,431	29.7	50.0
1978	14,262	23.7	11,694	82.0	3,373	28.8	50.3
1979	14,403	24.2	11,763	81.7	3,482	29.6	50.8
1980	14,851	24.8	12,287	82.7	3,682	30.0	50.8
1981	14,838	25.2	12,290	82.8	3,741	30.4	51.3
1982	14,763	26.0	12,171	82.4	3,841	31.6	52.4
1983	14,577	25.1	12,082	82.9	3,657	30.3	52.8
1984	14,287	25.6	11,956	83.7	3,662	30.6	52.4
1985	13,923	27.2	11,736	84.3	3,788	32.3	54.0
1986	13,591	27.8	11,430	84.1	3,775	33.0	55.5
1987	13,324	28.7	11,086	83.2	3,826	34.5	56.7
1988	13,242	30.4	11,068	83.6	4,021	36.3	58.3
1989	12,936	31.6	10,758	83.2	4,085	38.0	58.6
1990	12,718	31.8	10,533	82.8	4,042	38.4	59.8
1991	12,536	33.6	10,391	82.9	4,218	41.0	62.1
1992	12,313	36.0	10,344	84.0	4,429	42.8	66.9
1993	12,810	34.3	10,702	83.5	4,393	41.0	66.6
1994	12,696	36.0	10,611	83.6	4,576	43.1	68.7
1995	12,548	35.5	10,338	82.4	4,452	43.1	69.8

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Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *School Enrollment–Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1995*, Current Population Reports, P-20 Series, 1996.

Note: College participation rates were calculated using the total population and high school graduates as the bases. The ever-enrolled-in-college participation rate includes 14- to 24-year-olds who either were enrolled in college or had completed one or more years of college. The change in the educational attainment question and the college completion categories from "four or more years of college" to "at least some college" in 1992 caused an increase of approximately 5 percentage points in the proportion of 14- to 24-year-old high school graduates who had enrolled in or who had completed one or more years of college. The high school completion rates were calculated using the total population as the base. High school graduates are persons who have completed four years of high school or more for 1975 to 1991. Beginning in 1992, they were persons whose highest degree was a high school diploma (including equivalency) or higher. Data for 1986 and later use a revised tabulation system. Improvements in edits and population estimation procedures caused slight changes in estimates for 1986. Data for 1980 through 1992 use 1980 Census–based estimates, and data for 1993 and later use 1990 Census–based estimates.

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Table 2 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1975 to 1995

	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
Year	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
WHITE							
MEN							
1975	11,050	30.1	9,139	82.7	3,326	36.4	56.6
1976	11,279	28.8	9,186	81.4	3,250	35.4	55.9
1977	11,445	28.7	9,263	80.9	3,286	35.5	54.5
1978	11,572	27.6	9,438	81.6	3,195	33.9	52.5
1979	11,721	26.5	9,457	80.7	3,104	32.8	52.7
1980	12,011	27.3	9,686	80.6	3,275	33.8	51.8
1981	12,040	27.7	9,619	79.9	3,340	34.7	52.8
1982	11,874	27.9	9,611	80.9	3,308	34.4	53.2
1983	11,787	28.3	9,411	79.8	3,335	35.4	53.5
1984	11,521	29.6	9,348	81.1	3,406	36.4	54.2
1985	11,108	29.3	9,077	81.7	3,254	35.8	55.5
1986	10,814	29.3	8,780	81.2	3,168	36.1	55.1
1987	10,549	31.2	8,498	80.6	3,289	38.7	56.7
1988	10,380	31.4	8,268	79.7	3,260	39.4	57.9
1989	10,240	31.5	8,177	79.9	3,223	39.4	58.5
1990	10,053	32.7	8,157	81.1	3,292	40.3	58.7
1991	9,896	33.0	7,843	79.3	3,270	41.9	59.9
1992	9,744	33.8	7,911	81.2	3,291	41.6	65.8
1993	10,294	34.0	8,338	81.0	3,498	42.0	65.1
1994	10,123	33.6	8,168	80.7	3,406	41.7	65.4
1995	9,980	34.0	8,001	80.2	3,398	42.5	65.3
WOMEN							
1975	11,653	23.9	9,743	83.6	2,790	28.6	49.1
1976	11,840	25.6	9,860	83.3	3,026	30.7	51.3
1977	11,985	24.4	10,029	83.7	2,923	29.1	50.0
1978	12,078	23.9	10,088	83.5	2,882	28.6	50.3
1979	12,174	24.8	10,157	83.4	3,015	29.7	50.8
1980	12,471	25.2	10,528	84.4	3,147	29.9	50.9
1981	12,446	25.8	10,504	84.4	3,208	30.5	51.6
1982	12,332	26.6	10,333	83.8	3,285	31.8	52.9
1983	12,112	25.8	10,233	84.5	3,129	30.6	53.4
1984	11,826	26.4	10,026	84.8	3,120	31.1	53.4
1985	11,524	28.2	9,840	85.4	3,247	33.0	55.2
1986	11,205	28.0	9,509	84.9	3,139	33.0	55.8
1987	10,944	29.2	9,189	84.0	3,192	34.7	57.5
1988	10,881	31.2	9,223	84.8	3,399	36.9	59.2
1989	10,586	32.2	8,913	84.2	3,409	38.2	59.2
1990	10,340	32.3	8,666	83.8	3,344	38.6	61.4
1991	10,119	35.0	8,481	83.8	3,544	42.1	64.5
1992	9,928	36.5	8,468	85.3	3,625	42.8	68.1
1993	10,199	35.1	8,651	84.8	3,576	41.3	67.9
1994	10,048	37.0	8,503	84.6	3,714	43.7	69.7
1995	9,886	36.6	8,271	83.7	3,615	43.7	71.3

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Table 2 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1975 to 1995

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
AFRICAN AMERICAN							
MEN							
1975	1,451	20.3	897	61.8	294	32.8	50.5
1976	1,503	22.0	936	62.3	331	35.4	50.3
1977	1,528	20.2	970	63.5	309	31.9	47.6
1978	1,554	19.6	956	61.5	305	31.9	49.3
1979	1,577	19.3	973	61.7	304	31.2	46.7
1980	1,690	17.3	1,115	66.0	293	26.3	44.1
1981	1,730	18.8	1,154	66.7	325	28.2	42.3
1982	1,786	18.5	1,171	65.6	331	28.3	44.5
1983	1,807	18.3	1,202	66.5	331	27.5	43.6
1984	1,811	20.3	1,272	70.2	367	28.9	45.2
1985	1,720	20.1	1,244	72.3	345	27.7	43.6
1986	1,687	20.7	1,220	72.3	349	28.6	44.4
1987	1,666	22.6	1,188	71.3	377	31.7	48.3
1988	1,653	18.0	1,189	71.9	297	25.0	42.8
1989	1,654	19.6	1,195	72.2	324	27.1	45.8
1990	1,634	26.1	1,240	75.9	426	34.4	48.9
1991	1,635	23.1	1,174	71.8	378	32.2	47.3
1992	1,676	21.2	1,211	72.3	356	29.7	49.4
1993	1,703	22.7	1,240	72.8	387	31.2	50.1
1994	1,733	25.4	1,277	73.7	440	34.5	57.9
1995	1,660	25.9	1,247	75.1	430	34.4	56.2
WOMEN							
1975	1,761	21.1	1,182	67.1	372	31.5	46.4
1976	1,813	23.0	1,302	71.8	417	32.0	50.3
1977	1,859	22.2	1,317	70.8	413	31.4	46.2
1978	1,897	20.6	1,384	73.0	390	28.2	46.7
1979	1,934	20.3	1,383	71.5	392	28.3	49.8
1980	2,031	20.8	1,475	72.6	422	28.6	47.4
1981	2,049	20.7	1,526	74.5	424	27.8	46.6
1982	2,086	20.9	1,572	75.4	436	27.7	46.3
1983	2,058	20.0	1,539	74.8	411	26.7	46.3
1984	2,052	20.4	1,613	78.6	419	26.0	45.1
1985	1,996	19.5	1,565	78.4	389	24.9	44.0
1986	1,966	23.5	1,576	80.1	462	29.4	50.4
1987	1,937	23.0	1,550	80.0	445	28.7	48.9
1988	1,915	23.8	1,492	77.9	455	30.5	49.6
1989	1,905	26.8	1,511	79.3	511	33.8	51.8
1990	1,886	24.8	1,468	77.8	467	31.8	47.3
1991	1,869	24.1	1,455	77.8	460	30.9	45.2
1992	1,845	28.8	1,417	76.8	531	37.5	56.6
1993	1,965	26.0	1,508	76.7	511	33.9	57.2
1994	1,928	29.1	1,542	80.0	561	36.4	60.3
1995	1,965	28.4	1,541	78.4	558	36.2	59.5

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Table 2 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1975 to 1995

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
HISPANIC [a]							
MEN							
1975	678	21.4	383	56.5	145	37.9	55.4
1976	701	21.4	378	53.9	150	39.7	51.8
1977	754	18.4	396	52.5	139	35.1	46.5
1978	781	16.1	420	53.8	126	30.0	46.3
1979	837	18.3	454	54.2	153	33.7	49.5
1980	1,012	15.8	518	51.2	160	30.9	49.5
1981	988	16.6	498	50.4	164	32.9	48.6
1982	944	14.9	519	55.0	141	27.2	44.8
1983	968	15.7	476	49.2	152	31.9	47.4
1984	956	16.1	549	57.4	154	28.1	45.7
1985	1,132	14.8	659	58.2	168	25.5	44.9
1986	1,339	17.4	769	57.4	233	30.3	44.4
1987	1,337	18.5	795	59.5	247	31.1	45.1
1988	1,375	16.6	724	52.7	228	31.5	48.4
1989	1,439	14.7	756	52.5	211	27.9	42.7
1990	1,403	15.3	753	53.7	214	28.4	46.5
1991	1,503	14.0	719	47.8	211	29.3	42.2
1992	1,384	17.8	720	52.0	247	34.3	52.2
1993	1,710	19.8	1,005	58.8	338	33.6	51.8
1994	1,896	16.5	1,021	53.8	312	30.6	52.1
1995	1,907	18.7	1,106	58.0	356	32.2	52.3
WOMEN							
1975	769	19.5	449	58.4	150	33.4	46.7
1976	850	18.8	483	56.8	160	33.1	46.5
1977	855	16.3	483	56.5	139	28.8	41.6
1978	891	14.4	516	57.9	128	24.8	40.0
1979	917	15.3	516	56.3	140	27.1	42.3
1980	1,021	16.2	579	56.7	165	28.5	45.4
1981	1,064	16.7	646	60.7	178	27.6	43.4
1982	1,056	18.6	634	60.0	196	30.9	49.2
1983	1,057	18.7	634	60.0	198	31.2	49.7
1984	1,061	19.5	661	62.3	207	31.3	46.6
1985	1,091	18.8	734	67.3	205	27.9	48.0
1986	1,175	19.2	739	62.9	226	30.6	46.8
1987	1,256	16.6	801	63.8	208	26.0	43.2
1988	1,267	17.7	736	58.1	224	30.4	46.0
1989	1,377	17.7	823	59.8	244	29.6	44.5
1990	1,346	16.4	745	55.3	221	29.7	43.0
1991	1,372	22.2	780	56.9	305	39.1	52.4
1992	1,369	24.8	860	62.8	339	39.4	57.4
1993	1,652	23.6	1,045	63.3	390	37.3	60.1
1994	1,628	21.5	973	59.8	350	36.0	55.9
1995	1,696	22.9	1,011	59.6	389	38.4	59.6

[a] Hispanics may be of any race.

Table 3

Educational Attainment Rates for Persons 25 to 29 Years Old and Persons 25 Years Old and Over, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1975 to 1995

(percent)

Year and Age	ALL RACES			WHITE			AFRICAN AMERICAN			HISPANIC[a]		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
25 TO 29 YEARS OLD – Completed Four Years of High School or More												
1975	83.1	84.5	81.8	84.4	85.7	83.2	71.0	72.2	70.1	51.7	51.1	52.1
1976	84.7	86.0	83.5	85.9	87.3	84.6	73.8	72.5	74.9	58.1	57.6	58.4
1977	85.4	86.6	84.2	86.8	87.6	86.0	74.4	77.5	72.0	58.1	62.1	54.8
1978	85.3	86.0	84.6	86.3	86.8	85.8	77.3	78.5	76.3	56.6	58.5	54.7
1979	85.6	86.3	84.9	87.0	87.7	86.4	74.8	73.9	75.4	57.0	55.5	58.5
1980	85.4	85.4	85.5	86.9	86.8	87.0	76.6	74.8	78.1	58.6	58.3	58.8
1981	86.3	86.5	86.1	87.6	87.6	87.6	77.3	78.4	76.4	59.8	59.1	60.4
1982	86.2	86.3	86.1	86.9	87.0	86.8	80.9	80.5	81.3	60.9	60.7	61.2
1983	86.0	86.0	86.0	86.9	86.9	86.9	79.4	78.9	79.8	58.3	57.8	58.9
1984	85.9	85.6	86.3	86.9	86.8	87.0	78.9	75.9	81.5	58.6	56.8	60.2
1985	86.1	85.9	86.4	86.8	86.4	87.3	80.6	80.8	80.4	60.9	58.6	63.1
1986	86.1	85.9	86.4	86.5	85.6	87.4	83.4	86.5	80.6	59.1	58.2	60.0
1987	86.0	85.5	86.4	86.3	85.6	87.0	83.3	84.8	82.1	59.8	58.6	61.0
1988	85.7	84.4	87.0	86.5	84.8	88.2	80.7	80.6	80.7	62.0	59.4	65.0
1989	85.5	84.4	86.5	86.0	84.8	87.1	82.2	80.6	83.6	61.0	61.0	61.0
1990	85.7	84.4	87.0	86.3	84.6	88.1	81.7	81.5	81.8	58.2	56.6	59.9
1991	85.4	84.9	85.8	85.8	85.1	86.6	81.7	83.5	80.1	56.7	56.4	57.1
1992	86.3	86.1	86.5	87.0	86.5	87.6	80.9	82.5	79.5	60.9	61.1	60.6
1993	86.7	86.0	87.4	87.3	86.1	88.5	82.8	85.0	80.9	60.9	58.3	64.0
1994	86.1	84.5	87.6	86.5	84.7	88.3	84.1	82.9	85.0	60.3	58.0	63.0
1995	86.8	86.3	87.4	87.4	86.6	88.2	86.5	88.1	85.1	57.1	55.7	58.7
25 TO 29 YEARS OLD – Completed Four Years of College or More												
1975	21.9	25.1	18.7	22.8	26.3	19.4	10.7	11.4	10.1	8.8	10.0	7.3
1976	23.7	27.5	20.1	24.6	28.7	20.6	13.0	12.0	13.6	7.4	10.3	4.8
1977	24.0	27.0	21.1	25.3	28.5	22.1	12.6	12.8	12.4	6.7	7.2	6.4
1978	23.3	26.0	20.6	24.5	27.6	21.4	11.8	10.7	12.6	9.6	9.6	9.7
1979	23.1	25.6	20.5	24.3	27.1	21.5	12.4	13.3	11.7	7.3	7.9	6.8
1980	22.5	24.0	21.0	23.7	25.5	22.0	11.6	10.5	12.5	7.7	8.4	6.9
1981	21.3	23.1	19.6	22.4	24.3	20.5	11.6	12.1	11.1	7.5	8.6	6.5
1982	21.7	23.3	20.2	22.7	24.5	20.9	12.6	11.8	13.2	9.7	10.7	8.7
1983	22.5	23.9	21.1	23.4	25.0	21.8	12.9	13.1	12.8	10.4	9.6	11.1
1984	21.9	23.2	20.7	23.1	24.3	21.9	11.6	12.9	10.5	10.6	9.6	11.6
1985	22.2	23.1	21.3	23.2	24.2	22.2	11.5	10.3	12.6	11.1	10.9	11.2
1986	22.4	22.9	21.9	23.5	24.1	22.9	11.8	10.1	13.3	9.0	8.9	9.1
1987	22.0	22.3	21.7	23.0	23.3	22.8	11.4	11.6	11.1	8.7	9.2	8.2
1988	22.5	23.2	21.9	23.5	24.0	22.9	12.2	12.6	11.9	11.4	12.1	10.6
1989	23.4	23.9	22.9	24.4	24.8	24.0	12.7	12.0	13.3	10.1	9.6	10.6
1990	23.2	23.7	22.8	24.2	24.2	24.3	13.4	15.1	11.9	8.1	7.3	9.1
1991	23.2	23.0	23.4	24.6	24.1	25.0	11.0	11.5	10.6	9.2	8.1	10.4
1992	23.6	23.2	24.0	25.0	24.2	25.7	11.3	12.0	10.6	9.5	8.8	10.3
1993	23.7	23.4	23.9	24.7	24.4	25.1	13.2	12.6	13.8	8.3	7.1	9.8
1994	23.3	22.5	24.0	24.2	23.6	24.8	13.7	11.7	15.4	8.0	6.6	9.8
1995	24.7	24.5	24.9	26.0	25.4	26.6	15.3	17.2	13.6	8.9	7.8	10.1

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Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Educational Attainment in the United States: Current Population Reports, P-20 Series, 1996.

Note: The high school completion rates were calculated using the total population as the base. High school graduates are persons who have completed four years of high school or more for 1975 to 1991. Beginning in 1992, persons with four or more years of college was changed to persons with a bachelor's degree or higher. Data for 1995 and later use a revised tabulation system. Improvements in edits and population estimation procedures caused slight changes in estimates for 1995. Data for 1980 through 1992 use 1980 Census-based estimates, and data for 1993 and later use 1990 Census-based estimates.

Table 3 - Continued

Educational Attainment Rates for Persons 25 to 29 Years Old and Persons 25 Years Old and Over, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1975 to 1995 (percent)

Year and Age	ALL RACES			WHITE			AFRICAN AMERICAN			HISPANIC[a]		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
25 YEARS OLD AND OVER – Completed Four Years of High School or More												
1975	62.5	63.1	62.1	64.5	65.0	64.1	42.5	41.6	43.3	37.9	39.5	36.7
1976	64.1	64.7	63.5	66.1	66.7	65.5	43.8	42.3	45.0	39.3	41.4	37.3
1977	64.9	65.6	64.4	67.0	67.5	66.5	45.5	45.6	45.4	39.6	42.3	37.2
1978	65.9	66.8	65.2	67.9	68.6	67.2	47.6	47.9	47.3	40.8	42.2	39.6
1979	67.7	68.4	67.1	69.7	70.3	69.2	49.4	49.2	49.5	42.0	42.3	41.7
1980	85.4	85.4	85.5	86.9	86.8	87.0	76.6	74.8	78.1	58.6	58.3	58.8
1981	69.7	70.3	69.1	71.6	72.1	71.2	52.9	53.2	52.6	44.5	45.5	43.6
1982	71.0	71.7	70.3	72.8	73.4	72.3	54.9	55.7	54.3	45.9	48.1	44.1
1983	72.1	72.7	71.5	73.8	74.4	73.3	56.8	56.5	57.1	46.2	48.6	44.2
1984	73.3	73.7	73.0	75.0	75.4	74.6	58.5	57.1	59.7	47.1	48.6	45.7
1985	73.9	74.4	73.5	75.5	76.0	75.1	59.8	58.4	60.8	47.9	48.5	47.4
1986	74.7	75.1	74.4	76.2	76.5	75.9	62.3	61.5	63.0	48.5	49.2	47.8
1987	75.6	76.0	75.3	77.0	77.3	76.7	63.4	63.0	63.7	50.9	51.8	50.0
1988	76.2	76.4	76.0	77.7	77.7	77.6	63.5	63.7	63.4	51.0	52.0	50.0
1989	76.9	77.2	76.6	78.4	78.6	78.2	64.6	64.2	65.0	50.9	51.0	50.7
1990	77.6	77.7	77.5	79.1	79.1	79.0	66.2	65.8	66.5	50.8	50.3	51.3
1991	78.4	78.5	78.3	79.9	79.8	79.9	66.7	66.7	66.7	51.3	51.4	51.2
1992	79.4	79.7	79.2	80.9	81.1	80.7	67.7	67.0	68.2	52.6	53.7	51.5
1993	80.2	80.5	80.0	81.5	81.8	81.3	70.4	69.6	71.1	53.1	52.9	53.2
1994	80.9	81.0	80.7	82.0	82.1	81.9	72.9	71.7	73.8	53.3	53.4	53.2
1995	81.7	81.7	81.6	83.0	83.0	83.0	73.8	73.4	74.1	53.4	52.9	53.8
25 YEARS OLD AND OVER – Completed Four Years of College or More												
1975	13.9	17.6	10.6	14.5	18.4	11.0	6.4	6.7	6.2	6.3	8.3	4.6
1976	14.7	18.6	11.3	15.4	19.6	11.6	6.6	6.3	6.8	6.1	8.6	4.0
1977	15.4	19.2	12.0	16.1	20.2	12.4	7.2	7.0	7.4	6.2	8.1	4.4
1978	15.7	19.7	12.2	16.4	20.7	12.6	7.2	7.3	7.1	7.0	8.6	5.7
1979	16.4	20.4	12.9	17.2	21.4	13.3	7.9	8.3	7.5	6.7	8.2	5.3
1980	17.0	20.9	13.6	17.8	22.1	14.0	7.9	7.7	8.1	7.9	9.7	6.2
1981	17.1	21.1	13.4	17.8	22.2	13.8	8.2	8.2	8.2	7.7	9.7	5.9
1982	17.7	21.9	14.0	18.5	23.0	14.4	8.8	9.1	8.5	7.8	9.6	6.2
1983	18.8	23.0	15.1	19.5	24.0	15.4	9.5	10.0	9.2	7.9	9.2	6.8
1984	19.1	22.9	15.7	19.8	23.9	16.0	10.4	10.4	10.4	8.2	9.5	7.0
1985	19.4	23.1	16.0	20.0	24.0	16.3	11.1	11.2	11.0	8.5	9.7	7.3
1986	19.4	23.2	16.1	20.1	24.1	16.4	10.9	11.2	10.7	8.4	9.5	7.4
1987	19.9	23.6	16.5	20.5	24.5	16.9	10.7	11.0	10.4	8.6	9.7	7.5
1988	20.3	24.0	17.0	20.9	25.0	17.3	11.2	11.1	11.4	10.1	12.3	8.1
1989	21.1	24.5	18.1	21.8	25.4	18.5	11.8	11.7	11.9	9.9	11.0	8.8
1990	21.3	24.4	18.4	22.0	25.3	19.0	11.3	11.9	10.8	9.2	9.8	8.7
1991	21.4	24.3	18.8	22.2	25.4	19.3	11.5	11.4	11.6	9.7	10.0	9.4
1992	21.4	24.3	18.6	22.1	25.2	19.1	11.9	11.9	12.0	9.3	10.2	8.5
1993	21.9	24.8	19.2	22.6	25.7	19.7	12.2	11.9	12.4	9.0	9.5	8.5
1994	22.2	25.1	19.6	22.9	26.1	20.0	12.9	12.8	13.0	9.1	9.6	8.6
1995	23.0	26.0	20.2	24.0	27.2	21.0	13.2	13.6	12.9	9.3	10.1	8.4

[a] Hispanics may be of any race

Table 4

Total Enrollment in Higher Education by Type of Institution and Race/Ethnicity: Selected Years, Fall 1984 to Fall 1995

(Numbers in Thousands)

	1984	1988	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1984–95	Percent Change 1990–95	Percent Change 1994–95
ALL INSTITUTIONS	12,235	13,043	13,820	14,359	14,486	14,305	14,279	14,262	16.6	3.2	-0.1
White (non-Hispanic)	9,815	10,283	10,723	10,990	10,875	10,600	10,427	10,311	5.1	-3.8	-1.1
Total Minority	2,085	2,400	2,706	2,953	3,164	3,248	3,396	3,496	67.7	29.2	2.9
African American (non-Hispanic)	1,076	1,130	1,247	1,335	1,393	1,413	1,449	1,474	37.0	18.2	1.7
Hispanic	535	680	783	867	955	989	1,046	1,093	104.4	39.6	4.6
Asian American[a]	390	497	573	637	697	724	774	797	104.5	39.2	3.0
American Indian[b]	84	93	103	114	119	122	127	131	56.3	27.5	3.1
Nonresident Alien	335	361	391	416	448	457	457	454	35.6	-51.2	-0.6
FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	7,708	8,175	8,579	8,707	8,764	8,739	8,749	8,769	13.8	2.2	0.2
White (non-Hispanic)	6,301	6,582	6,769	6,791	6,744	6,639	6,565	6,517	3.4	-3.7	-0.7
Total Minority	1,124	1,292	1,486	1,573	1,663	1,734	1,819	1,886	67.8	26.9	3.7
African American (non-Hispanic)	617	656	723	758	791	814	834	852	38.1	17.9	2.2
Hispanic	246	296	358	383	410	432	463	485	97.3	35.6	4.9
Asian American[a]	223	297	357	381	407	429	462	482	116.3	35.0	4.5
American Indian[b]	38	42	48	51	55	59	61	66	72.9	36.9	7.4
Nonresident Alien	282	302	324	343	357	366	365	366	29.9	13.0	0.5
TWO-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	4,527	4,868	5,240	5,652	5,722	5,566	5,530	5,493	21.3	4.8	-0.7
White (non-Hispanic)	3,514	3,702	3,954	4,199	4,131	3,961	3,862	3,794	8.0	-4.0	-1.8
Total Minority	961	1,107	1,218	1,381	1,500	1,514	1,577	1,610	67.6	32.2	2.1
African American (non-Hispanic)	459	473	524	578	602	599	615	621	35.4	18.6	1.0
Hispanic	289	384	424	484	545	557	583	608	110.5	43.5	4.4
Asian American[a]	167	199	215	256	289	295	313	315	88.6	46.5	0.8
American Indian[b]	46	50	55	63	64	63	66	66	42.6	19.3	-0.9
Nonresident Alien	53	60	67	74	91	91	91	88	66.3	31.5	-3.6

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Trends in Enrollment in Higher Education by Racial/Ethnic Category: Fall 1982 through Fall 1992*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, January 1994. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1997.

Note: Because of under-reporting/nonreporting of racial/ethnic data, figures for 1984 were estimated when possible. Also, due to rounding, details may not add to totals. Percent changes for 1994 to 1995 were calculated prior to rounding. Data for fall 1994 have been revised from previously published figures.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

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Table 5

Total Enrollment in Higher Education by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Control of Institution: Selected Years, Fall 1984 to Fall 1995

(Numbers in Thousands)

	1984	1988	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1984–95	Percent Change 1990–95	Percent Change 1994–95
MEN	5,860	5,998	6,284	6,502	6,524	6,428	6,372	6,343	8.2	0.9	-0.5
White (non-Hispanic)	4,690	4,712	4,861	4,962	4,884	4,757	4,651	4,594	-2.0	-5.5	-1.2
Total Minority	939	1,051	1,177	1,281	1,366	1,395	1,452	1,484	58.1	26.1	2.2
African American (non-Hispanic)	437	443	485	517	537	540	550	556	27.2	14.6	1.1
Hispanic	254	310	354	391	428	441	464	480	89.0	35.6	3.5
Asian American[a]	210	259	295	325	351	363	385	393	87.3	33.3	2.1
American Indian[b]	38	39	43	48	50	51	53	55	44.3	27.5	3.5
Nonresident Alien	231	235	246	259	273	276	270	264	14.4	7.4	-1.9
WOMEN	6,375	7,045	7,535	7,857	7,963	7,878	7,907	7,919	24.2	5.1	0.2
White (non-Hispanic)	5,125	5,572	5,862	6,028	5,991	5,849	5,776	5,717	11.6	-2.5	-1.0
Total Minority	1,146	1,347	1,529	1,672	1,797	1,846	1,944	2,012	75.6	31.6	3.5
African American (non-Hispanic)	639	687	762	818	856	866	899	918	43.6	20.4	2.1
Hispanic	281	370	429	476	527	548	582	614	118.4	43.0	5.5
Asian American[a]	180	237	278	312	345	361	389	404	124.5	45.4	3.8
American Indian[b]	46	53	60	66	69	71	74	76	66.2	27.4	2.8
Nonresident Alien	104	126	145	157	175	184	186	190	82.8	31.1	2.0
PUBLIC	9,457	10,156	10,845	11,310	11,385	11,189	11,134	11,092	17.3	2.3	-0.4
White (non-Hispanic)	7,543	7,964	8,385	8,622	8,493	8,227	8,056	7,945	5.3	-5.2	-1.4
Total Minority	1,695	1,955	2,198	2,411	2,591	2,657	2,776	2,850	68.1	29.6	2.6
African American (non-Hispanic)	844	881	976	1,053	1,100	1,114	1,145	1,161	37.5	18.9	1.4
Hispanic	456	587	671	742	822	851	899	937	105.5	39.7	4.3
Asian American[a]	323	406	461	516	566	586	622	638	97.5	38.4	2.6
American Indian[b]	72	81	90	100	103	106	111	114	58.1	26.5	2.8
Nonresident Alien	219	238	260	275	300	304	301	297	35.8	14.4	-1.3
INDEPENDENT	2,661	2,887	2,975	3,049	3,102	3,116	3,145	3,169	19.1	6.5	0.8
White (non-Hispanic)	2,272	2,319	2,338	2,368	2,382	2,373	2,371	2,366	4.1	1.2	-0.2
Total Minority	389	443	506	542	572	589	620	647	66.2	27.8	4.3
African American (non-Hispanic)	232	248	271	282	292	298	304	313	34.9	15.5	2.9
Hispanic	79	93	111	125	133	138	147	157	98.4	41.2	6.7
Asian American[a]	67	91	112	121	131	138	152	159	137.9	42.3	4.7
American Indian[b]	11	11	12	14	16	15	17	17	58.7	45.5	5.2
Nonresident Alien	116	123	131	141	148	153	155	157	35.3	19.8	1.4

Source: U.S. Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. *Trends in Enrollment in Higher Education by Racial/Ethnic Category: Fall 1982 through Fall 1992*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, January 1994. U.S. Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1997.

Note: Because of under-reporting/nonreporting of racial/ethnic data, figures for 1984 were estimated when possible. Also, due to rounding, details may not add to totals. Percent changes for 1994 to 1995 were calculated prior to rounding. Data for fall 1994 have been revised from previously published figures.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 6

Undergraduate, Graduate, and Professional School Enrollment in Higher Education by Race/Ethnicity: Selected Years, Fall 1984 to Fall 1995

(Numbers in Thousands)

	1984	1988	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1984–95	Percent Change 1990–95	Percent Change 1994–95
UNDERGRADUATE TOTAL	10,611	11,304	11,959	12,439	12,537	12,323	12,263	12,232	15.3	2.3	-0.3
White (non-Hispanic)	8,484	8,907	9,273	9,508	9,387	9,100	8,916	8,806	3.8	-5.0	-1.2
Total Minority	1,911	2,192	2,468	2,698	2,892	2,955	3,077	3,159	65.3	28.0	2.6
African American (non-Hispanic)	995	1,039	1,147	1,229	1,280	1,290	1,317	1,334	34.0	16.3	1.2
Hispanic	495	631	725	804	888	918	968	1,012	104.4	39.6	4.5
Asian American[a]	343	437	501	559	613	634	674	692	101.8	38.1	2.7
American Indian[b]	78	86	95	106	111	113	117	121	54.8	27.4	2.8
Nonresident Alien	216	205	219	234	258	268	269	268	23.9	22.4	-0.7
GRADUATE TOTAL	1,343	1,472	1,586	1,639	1,669	1,688	1,721	1,732	29.0	9.2	0.6
White (non-Hispanic)	1,087	1,153	1,228	1,258	1,267	1,274	1,287	1,282	18.0	4.4	-0.3
Total Minority	141	167	190	205	218	232	255	271	92.0	42.6	6.1
African American (non-Hispanic)	67	76	84	89	94	102	111	119	77.0	4.2	7.2
Hispanic	32	39	47	51	55	58	64	68	112.6	44.7	6.5
Asian American[a]	37	46	53	58	62	65	73	76	104.3	43.4	4.2
American Indian[b]	5	6	6	7	7	7	8	8	69.0	33.3	3.9
Nonresident Alien	115	151	167	177	184	182	180	180	56.0	7.8	0.0
PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL TOTAL	277	274	281	281	281	292	295	298	7.4	6.0	1.0
White (non-Hispanic)	243	223	222	224	221	226	224	223	-8.1	0.4	-0.4
Total Minority	31	39	47	50	54	60	64	67	116.1	42.5	5.5
African American (non-Hispanic)	13	14	16	17	18	20	21	21	65.0	31.2	3.7
Hispanic	8	9	11	11	12	13	13	14	72.9	27.3	3.2
Asian American[a]	9	14	19	21	23	25	28	30	228.6	57.9	7.0
American Indian[b]	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	113.9	100.0	17.4
Nonresident Alien	3	5	5	6	6	7	7	7	143.4	40.0	3.9

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Trends in Enrollment in Higher Education by Racial/Ethnic Category: Fall 1982 through Fall 1992*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, January 1994. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Enrollment in Higher Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1997.

Note: Because of under-reporting/nonreporting of racial/ethnic data, figures for 1984 were estimated when possible. Also, due to rounding, details may not add to totals. Percent changes for 1994 to 1995 were calculated prior to rounding. Data for fall 1994 have been revised from previously published figures.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 7

Enrollment at Historically Black Colleges and Universities by Race/Ethnicity: Fall 1986 to Fall 1995

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1986–95	Percent Change 1994–95
Number of HBCUs[a]	104	104	106	104	104	102	107	107	107	107		
Total Enrollment	213,114	217,670	230,758	238,946	248,697	258,509	277,261	284,247	280,915	284,951	33.7	1.4
African American (non-Hispanic)	176,610	182,020	192,848	199,974	207,547	213,904	224,946	230,078	229,046	230,279	30.4	0.5
White (non-Hispanic)	22,784	23,227	25,767	26,962	29,601	31,085	36,203	37,375	36,045	38,936	70.9	8.0
Asian American[b]	1,207	1,187	1,473	1,568	1,724	2,009	2,151	2,357	2,374	2,251	86.5	-5.2
Hispanic	1,486	1,590	1,746	1,859	1,797	2,131	4,755	5,021	5,186	5,105	243.5	-1.6
American Indian[c]	482	449	254	307	338	388	447	518	586	598	24.1	2.0
Nonresident Alien	10,545	8,897	8,671	8,273	7,690	7,489	7,360	6,757	6,262	5,985	-43.2	-4.4

Source: National Association for Equal Opportunity Research Institute. Annual Fall Enrollment Survey 1986–1995.

Note: Detail does not add to total because the race/ethnicity unknown data are included in the total. The total number of HBCUs in 1995 was 107, of which 102 are members of the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO).

[a] These figures represent the number of institutions reporting their enrollment each year.

[b] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[c] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 8

African American Enrollment at Historically Black Colleges and Universities by Control of Institution and Gender: Fall 1986 to Fall 1995

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1986–94	Percent Change 1993–94
NUMBER OF HBCUs	104	104	106	104	104	102	107	107	107	107		
ALL HBCUs	176,610	182,020	192,848	199,974	207,547	213,904	224,946	230,078	229,046	230,279	30.4	0.5
Men	73,495	74,447	77,741	79,462	82,587	85,713	90,831	92,397	91,667	91,546	24.6	-0.1
Women	103,115	107,573	115,107	120,512	124,960	128,191	134,115	137,681	137,379	138,733	34.5	1.0
PUBLIC HBCUs	120,930	124,749	132,067	137,190	143,763	150,707	156,623	159,581	158,888	159,492	31.9	0.4
Men	50,592	51,177	53,206	54,400	57,070	60,147	63,389	63,890	63,702	63,607	25.7	-0.1
Women	70,338	73,572	78,861	82,790	86,693	90,560	93,234	95,691	95,186	95,885	36.3	0.7
INDEPENDENT HBCUs	55,680	57,271	60,781	62,784	63,784	63,197	68,323	70,497	70,158	70,787	27.1	0.9
Men	22,903	23,270	24,535	25,062	25,517	25,566	27,442	28,507	27,965	27,939	22.0	-0.1
Women	32,777	34,001	36,246	37,722	38,267	37,631	40,881	41,990	42,193	42,848	30.7	1.6

Source: National Association for Equal Opportunity Research Institute. Annual Fall Enrollment Survey 1986–1995.

Note: The total number of HBCUs in 1995 was 107, of which 102 are members of the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO).

Table 9

Associate Degrees by Race/Ethnicity and Gender for Selected Years, 1985 to 1994

	1985		1991		1992		1993		1994		Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent		
Total	429,815	100.0	462,030	100.0	494,387	100.0	508,154	100.0	540,923	100.0	25.8	6.4
Men[a]	190,409	44.3	190,221	41.2	202,808	41.0	209,051	41.1	220,191	40.7	15.6	5.3
Women[b]	239,406	55.7	271,809	58.8	291,579	59.0	299,103	58.9	320,732	59.3	34.0	7.2
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	355,343	82.7	376,081	81.4	400,530	81.0	405,883	79.9	428,273	79.2	20.5	5.5
Men[d]	157,278	82.6	155,330	81.7	164,799	81.3	167,312	80.0	174,947	79.5	11.2	4.6
Women[e]	198,065	82.7	220,751	81.2	235,731	80.8	238,571	79.8	253,326	79.0	27.9	6.2
Minority	68,065	15.8	79,305	17.2	85,920	17.4	93,342	18.4	102,523	19.0	50.6	9.8
Men	29,443	15.5	31,741	16.7	34,615	17.1	37,961	18.2	41,072	18.7	39.5	8.2
Women	38,630	16.1	47,564	17.5	51,305	17.6	55,381	18.5	61,451	19.2	59.1	11.0
African American (non-Hispanic)	35,799	8.3	37,657	8.2	39,411	8.0	42,340	8.3	46,451	8.6	29.8	9.7
Men	14,192	7.5	13,718	7.2	14,294	7.0	15,497	7.4	17,379	7.9	22.5	12.1
Women	21,607	9.0	23,939	8.8	25,117	8.6	26,843	9.0	29,072	9.1	34.5	8.3
Hispanic	19,407	4.5	24,251	5.2	26,905	5.4	29,991	5.9	32,438	6.0	67.1	8.2
Men	8,561	4.5	10,210	5.4	11,536	5.7	12,924	6.2	13,395	6.1	56.5	3.6
Women	10,846	4.5	14,041	5.2	15,369	5.3	17,067	5.7	19,043	5.9	75.6	11.6
Asian American[f]	9,914	2.3	13,725	3.0	15,596	3.2	16,632	3.3	18,659	3.4	88.2	12.2
Men	5,492	2.9	6,440	3.4	7,254	3.6	7,877	3.8	8,403	3.8	53.0	6.7
Women	4,422	1.8	7,285	2.7	8,342	2.9	8,755	2.9	10,256	3.2	131.9	17.1
American Indian[g]	2,953	0.7	3,672	0.8	4,008	0.8	4,379	0.9	4,975	0.9	68.5	13.6
Men	1,198	0.6	1,373	0.7	1,531	0.8	1,663	0.8	1,895	0.9	58.2	14.0
Women	1,755	0.7	2,299	0.8	2,477	0.8	2,716	0.9	3,080	1.0	75.5	13.4
Nonresident Alien	6,407	1.5	6,644	1.4	7,937	1.6	8,929	1.8	10,127	1.9	58.1	13.4
Men	3,696	1.9	3,150	1.7	3,394	1.7	3,778	1.8	4,172	1.9	12.9	10.4
Women	2,711	1.1	3,494	1.3	4,543	1.6	5,151	1.7	5,955	1.9	119.7	15.6

Source: U.S. Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1996.

Note: As of academic year 1989 data on degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group and field of study were not available.

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 10

Bachelor's Degrees by Race/Ethnicity and Gender for Selected Years, 1985 to 1994

	1985		1991		1992		1993		1994		Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent		
Total	968,311	100.0	1,081,280	100.0	1,129,883	100.0	1,159,931	100.0	1,165,973	100.0	20.4	0.5
Men[a]	476,148	49.2	496,424	45.9	516,976	45.8	530,541	45.7	530,804	45.5	11.5	0.0
Women[b]	492,163	50.8	584,856	54.1	612,857	54.2	629,390	54.3	635,169	54.5	29.1	0.9
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	826,106	85.3	904,062	83.6	936,771	82.9	947,309	81.7	936,227	80.3	13.3	-1.2
Men[d]	405,085	85.1	415,505	83.7	429,842	83.1	435,084	82.0	429,121	80.8	5.9	-1.4
Women[e]	421,021	85.5	488,557	83.5	506,929	82.7	512,225	81.4	507,106	79.8	20.4	-1.0
Minority	112,988	11.7	148,084	13.7	164,983	14.6	180,382	15.6	195,666	16.8	73.2	8.5
Men	50,972	10.7	63,065	12.7	70,362	13.6	76,490	14.4	82,009	15.4	60.9	7.2
Women	62,106	12.6	85,019	14.5	94,621	15.4	103,892	16.5	113,657	17.9	83.0	9.4
African American (non-Hispanic)	57,473	5.9	65,341	6.0	72,326	6.4	77,872	6.7	83,576	7.2	45.4	7.3
Men	23,018	4.8	24,328	4.9	26,956	5.2	28,883	5.4	30,648	5.8	33.1	6.1
Women	34,455	7.0	41,013	7.0	45,370	7.4	48,989	7.8	52,928	8.3	53.6	8.0
Hispanic	25,874	2.7	36,612	3.4	40,761	3.6	45,376	3.9	50,241	4.3	94.2	10.7
Men	12,402	2.6	16,158	3.3	17,976	3.5	19,865	3.7	21,807	4.1	75.8	9.8
Women	13,472	2.7	20,454	3.5	22,785	3.7	25,511	4.1	28,434	4.5	111.1	11.5
Asian American[f]	25,395	2.6	41,618	3.8	46,720	4.1	51,463	4.4	55,660	4.8	119.2	8.2
Men	13,554	2.8	20,678	4.2	23,248	4.5	25,293	4.8	26,938	5.1	98.7	6.5
Women	11,841	2.4	20,940	3.6	23,472	3.8	26,170	4.2	28,722	4.5	142.6	9.8
American Indian[g]	4,246	0.4	4,513	0.4	5,176	0.5	5,671	0.5	6,189	0.5	45.8	9.1
Men	1,998	0.4	1,901	0.4	2,182	0.4	2,449	0.5	2,616	0.5	30.9	6.8
Women	2,248	0.5	2,612	0.4	2,994	0.5	3,222	0.5	3,573	0.6	58.9	10.9
Nonresident Alien	29,217	3.0	29,134	2.7	28,079	2.5	32,240	2.8	34,080	2.9	16.6	5.7
Men	20,091	4.2	17,854	3.6	16,772	3.2	18,967	3.6	19,674	3.7	-2.1	3.7
Women	9,126	1.9	11,280	1.9	11,307	1.8	13,273	2.1	14,406	2.3	57.9	8.5

Source: U.S. Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1996.

Note: As of academic year 1989, degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group and field of study were not available.

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

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Table 11

Master's Degrees by Race/Ethnicity and Gender for Selected Years, 1985 to 1994

	1985		1991		1992		1993		1994		Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent		
Total	280,421	100.0	328,645	100.0	348,682	100.0	368,701	100.0	385,419	100.0	37.4	4.5
Men[a]	139,417	49.7	151,796	46.2	159,543	45.8	168,754	45.8	175,355	45.5	25.8	3.9
Women[b]	141,004	50.3	176,849	53.8	189,139	54.2	199,947	54.2	210,064	54.5	49.0	5.1
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	223,628	79.7	255,281	77.7	268,371	77.0	278,829	75.6	288,288	74.8	28.9	3.4
Men[d]	106,059	76.1	111,224	73.3	116,096	72.8	120,225	71.2	123,854	70.6	16.8	3.0
Women[e]	117,569	83.4	144,057	81.5	152,275	80.5	158,604	79.3	164,434	78.3	39.9	3.7
Minority	29,841	10.6	36,841	11.2	41,405	11.9	45,718	12.4	50,814	13.2	70.3	11.1
Men	13,684	9.8	16,157	10.6	17,771	11.1	19,686	11.7	21,442	12.2	56.7	8.9
Women	16,157	11.5	20,684	11.7	23,634	12.5	26,032	13.0	29,372	14.0	81.8	12.8
African American (non-Hispanic)	13,939	5.0	16,139	4.9	18,116	5.2	19,780	5.4	21,937	5.7	57.4	10.9
Men	5,200	3.7	5,709	3.6	6,054	3.8	6,821	4.0	7,413	4.2	42.6	8.7
Women	8,739	6.2	10,430	5.9	12,062	6.4	12,959	6.5	14,524	6.9	66.2	12.1
Hispanic	6,864	2.4	8,386	2.6	9,358	2.7	10,665	2.9	11,913	3.1	73.6	11.7
Men	3,059	2.2	3,670	2.4	4,132	2.6	4,735	2.8	5,113	2.9	67.1	8.0
Women	3,805	2.7	4,716	2.7	5,226	2.8	5,930	3.0	6,800	3.2	78.7	14.7
Asian American[f]	7,782	2.8	11,180	3.4	12,658	3.6	13,866	3.8	15,267	4.0	96.2	10.1
Men	4,842	3.5	6,319	4.2	7,062	4.4	7,544	4.5	8,225	4.7	69.9	9.0
Women	2,940	2.1	4,861	2.7	5,596	3.0	6,322	3.2	7,042	3.4	139.5	11.4
American Indian[g]	1,256	0.4	1,136	0.3	1,273	0.4	1,407	0.4	1,697	0.4	35.1	20.6
Men	583	0.4	459	0.3	523	0.3	586	0.3	691	0.4	18.5	17.9
Women	673	0.5	677	0.4	750	0.4	821	0.4	1,006	0.5	49.5	22.5
Nonresident Alien	26,952	9.6	36,523	11.1	38,906	11.2	44,154	12.0	46,317	12.0	71.8	4.9
Men	19,674	14.1	24,415	16.1	25,676	16.1	28,843	17.1	30,059	17.1	52.8	4.2
Women	7,278	5.2	12,108	6.8	13,230	7.0	15,311	7.7	16,258	7.7	123.4	6.2

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Digest of Education Statistics*, Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1996.

Note: As of academic year 1989, data on degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group and field of study were not available.

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 12

First-Professional Degrees by Race/Ethnicity and Gender for Selected Years, 1985 to 1994

	1985		1991		1992		1993		1994		Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent		
Total	71,057	100.0	71,515	100.0	72,129	100.0	74,960	100.0	75,418	100.0	6.1	0.6
Men[a]	47,501	66.8	43,601	61.0	43,812	60.7	44,821	59.8	44,707	59.3	-5.9	-0.3
Women[b]	23,556	33.2	27,914	39.0	28,317	39.3	30,139	40.2	30,711	40.7	30.4	1.9
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	63,219	89.0	60,327	84.4	59,800	82.9	60,830	81.1	60,140	79.7	-4.9	-1.1
Men[d]	42,630	89.7	37,348	85.7	36,939	84.3	37,157	82.9	36,573	81.8	-14.2	-1.6
Women[e]	20,589	87.4	22,979	82.3	22,861	80.7	23,673	78.5	23,567	76.7	14.5	-0.4
Minority	6,977	9.8	10,118	14.1	11,077	15.4	12,612	16.8	13,841	18.4	98.4	9.7
Men	4,190	8.8	5,500	12.6	5,988	13.7	6,587	14.7	7,119	15.9	69.9	8.1
Women	2,787	11.8	4,618	16.5	5,089	18.0	6,025	20.0	6,722	21.9	141.2	11.6
African American (non-Hispanic)	3,029	4.3	3,575	5.0	3,560	4.9	4,100	5.5	4,444	5.9	46.7	8.4
Men	1,623	3.4	1,672	3.8	1,603	3.7	1,777	4.0	1,902	4.3	17.2	7.0
Women	1,406	6.0	1,903	6.8	1,957	6.9	2,323	7.7	2,542	8.3	80.8	9.4
Hispanic	1,884	2.7	2,527	3.5	2,766	3.8	2,984	4.0	3,134	4.2	66.3	5.0
Men	1,239	2.6	1,506	3.5	1,635	3.7	1,762	3.9	1,781	4.0	43.7	1.1
Women	645	2.7	1,021	3.7	1,131	4.0	1,222	4.1	1,353	4.4	109.8	10.7
Asian American[f]	1,816	2.6	3,755	5.3	4,455	6.2	5,160	6.9	5,892	7.8	224.4	14.2
Men	1,152	2.4	2,178	5.0	2,593	5.9	2,858	6.4	3,214	7.2	179.0	12.5
Women	664	2.8	1,577	5.6	1,862	6.6	2,302	7.6	2,678	8.7	303.3	16.3
American Indian[g]	248	0.3	261	0.4	296	0.4	368	0.5	371	0.5	49.6	0.8
Men	176	0.4	144	0.3	157	0.4	190	0.4	222	0.5	26.1	16.8
Women	72	0.3	117	0.4	139	0.5	178	0.6	149	0.5	106.9	-16.3
Nonresident Alien	861	1.2	1,070	1.5	1,252	1.7	1,518	2.0	1,437	1.9	66.9	-5.3
Men	681	1.4	753	1.7	885	2.0	1,077	2.4	1,015	2.3	49.0	-5.8
Women	180	0.8	317	1.1	367	1.3	441	1.5	422	1.4	134.4	-4.3

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1996.

Note: As of academic year 1989, data on degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group and field of study were not available.

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 13

Degrees Conferred by Historically Black Colleges and Universities by Race/Ethnicity and Level, Selected Years, 1984–85 to 1993–94

ASSOCIATE DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Associate Degrees						
Year	Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-Resident Alien	Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-Resident Alien
1984–85	2,691	880	1,547	162	26	5	71	0.6	0.2	4.3	0.8	0.3	0.2	1.1
1986–87	2,612	796	1,571	174	26	9	36	0.6	0.2	4.4	0.9	0.2	0.3	0.8
1988–89	2,526	825	1,487	134	17	3	60	0.6	0.2	4.3	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.9
1989–90	2,489	793	1,477	153	11	13	42	0.6	0.2	4.2	0.7	0.1	0.4	0.7
1990–91	2,613	847	1,498	133	23	1	111	0.6	0.2	4.0	0.5	0.2	0.0	1.7
1991–92	2,489	838	1,465	111	25	3	47	0.5	0.2	3.7	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.6
1992–93	2,771	1,083	1,456	173	21	4	34	0.5	0.3	3.4	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.4
1993–94	2,820	1,147	1,466	148	22	6	31	0.5	0.3	3.2	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.3

BACHELOR'S DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Bachelor's Degrees						
1984–85	20,887	1,870	16,326	218	321	46	2,106	2.2	0.2	28.4	0.8	1.3	1.1	7.2
1986–87	20,270	1,819	16,589	121	135	54	1,552	2.0	0.2	29.3	0.4	0.4	1.4	5.3
1988–89	19,518	2,016	16,162	92	113	33	1,102	1.9	0.2	27.8	0.3	0.3	0.8	4.1
1989–90	19,734	2,212	16,325	111	176	19	891	1.9	0.3	26.7	0.3	0.4	0.4	3.3
1990–91	21,439	2,282	17,930	130	175	37	885	2.0	0.3	27.4	0.4	0.4	0.8	3.0
1991–92	23,425	2,576	19,693	150	185	35	786	2.1	0.3	27.2	0.4	0.4	0.7	2.8
1992–93	26,003	2,880	22,020	142	219	48	724	2.2	0.3	28.3	0.3	0.4	0.8	2.2
1993–94	27,391	2,955	23,434	154	197	44	607	2.3	0.3	28.0	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.8

MASTER'S DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Master's Degrees						
1984–85	4,190	799	2,555	34	58	20	724	1.5	0.4	18.3	0.5	0.7	1.6	2.7
1986–87	4,012	844	2,443	25	155	10	535	1.4	0.4	17.6	0.4	1.8	0.9	1.8
1988–89	3,904	885	2,388	37	119	8	467	1.3	0.4	16.9	0.5	1.2	0.7	1.4
1989–90	4,036	1,103	2,352	34	117	13	417	1.3	0.4	15.2	0.4	1.1	1.2	1.2
1990–91	4,139	1,087	2,505	41	132	5	369	1.3	0.4	15.5	0.5	1.2	0.4	1.0
1991–92	4,202	1,053	2,619	43	104	8	375	1.2	0.4	14.5	0.5	0.8	0.6	1.0
1992–93	4,600	1,167	2,766	39	158	7	463	1.2	0.4	14.0	0.4	1.1	0.5	1.0
1993–94	4,950	1,140	3,187	33	186	9	395	1.3	0.4	14.5	0.3	1.2	0.5	0.9

DOCTORAL DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Doctoral Degrees						
1984–85	174	22	105	0	2	0	45	0.5	0.1	9.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.8
1986–87	194	23	114	0	7	0	50	0.6	0.1	10.8	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.8
1988–89	187	11	128	0	4	0	44	0.5	*	12.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.6
1989–90	207	20	143	1	0	0	43	0.5	0.1	12.4	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.5
1990–91	200	30	131	0	3	01	35	0.5	0.1	10.8	0.0	0.2	1.0	0.4
1991–92	205	46	119	2	2	0	36	0.5	0.2	9.7	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.3
1992–93	213	31	128	1	6	0	47	0.5	0.1	9.5	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.4
1993–94	210	32	130	5	3	0	40	0.5	0.1	9.3	0.6	0.1	0.0	0.3

FIRST-PROFESSIONAL DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total First-Professional Degrees						
1984–85	962	165	693	28	5	3	68	1.4	0.3	22.9	1.5	0.3	1.2	7.9
1986–87	872	142	618	15	23	20	54	1.2	0.2	18.1	0.7	1.0	5.6	6.1
1988–89	693	132	478	10	16	1	56	1.0	0.2	15.2	0.4	0.5	0.4	5.7
1989–90	820	149	552	33	18	4	64	1.2	0.2	16.2	1.4	0.5	1.6	6.1
1990–91	798	173	509	36	15	0	65	1.1	0.3	14.2	1.6	0.4	0.0	5.1
1991–92	756	172	449	43	16	1	75	1.0	0.3	12.6	1.6	0.4	0.3	4.0
1992–93	966	185	627	55	19	0	80	1.3	0.3	15.3	1.8	0.4	0.0	5.3
1993–94	1,011	169	688	48	33	1	72	1.3	0.3	15.5	1.5	0.6	0.3	5.0

Source: Hoffman, Charlene, Thomas D. Snyder and Bill Sonnenberg. *Historically Black Colleges and Universities, 1976–90*. Washington, DC: Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, July 1992. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions" surveys, 1990–91 through 1993–94.

Note: Data in this table exclude persons whose racial/ethnic identification was not available. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals.

Table 14

Degrees Conferred by Hispanic-Serving Institutions by Race/Ethnicity and Level, 1990–91 to 1993–94

ASSOCIATE DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Associate Degrees						
Year	Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-Resident Alien	Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-Resident Alien
1990–91	23,725	7,657	2,905	9,465	1,201	128	670	5.1	2.0	7.7	39.0	8.7	3.5	10.1
1991–92	22,529	7,123	2,984	9,431	1,207	115	820	4.5	1.8	7.7	36.1	8.0	3.0	10.3
1992–93	33,986	11,324	5,115	12,696	2,373	227	1,473	6.6	2.9	12.4	43.8	14.8	5.4	16.4
1993–94	37,457	13,871	5,228	13,464	2,524	334	1,361	6.9	3.3	11.5	42.6	13.8	6.8	13.4

BACHELOR'S DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Bachelor's Degrees						
1990–91	17,618	7,257	1,086	6,857	815	80	699	1.6	0.8	1.7	18.7	2.0	1.8	2.4
1991–92	17,397	7,085	1,283	6,959	976	92	608	1.5	0.8	1.8	17.3	2.1	1.8	2.1
1992–93	20,529	8,188	1,672	8,111	1,276	95	733	1.8	0.9	2.2	18.2	2.5	1.7	2.3
1993–94	24,078	9,720	2,178	9,430	1,468	219	876	2.1	1.1	3.5	19.2	2.7	3.6	2.6

MASTER'S DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Master's Degrees						
1990–91	5,015	2,634	239	1,111	158	21	382	1.5	1.0	1.5	13.3	1.4	1.8	1.0
1991–92	5,025	2,914	284	1,111	154	15	422	1.4	1.1	1.6	12.3	1.3	1.2	1.1
1992–93	6,047	3,339	340	1,411	183	32	635	1.6	1.3	1.8	13.9	1.4	2.4	1.4
1993–94	8,692	4,662	610	1,851	437	90	938	2.2	1.7	2.9	16.4	3.0	5.6	2.0

DOCTORAL DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Doctoral Degrees						
1990–91	99	55	0	15	0	0	18	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
1991–92	101	64	1	10	1	1	24	0.2	0.3	0.1	1.3	0.1	0.8	0.2
1992–93	111	71	5	13	1	N/A	21	0.3	0.3	0.4	1.6	0.1	N/A	0.2
1993–94	285	195	6	38	19	1	25	0.7	0.7	0.4	5.7	1.0	0.8	0.2

FIRST–PROFESSIONAL DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total First-Professional Degrees						
1990–91	216	179	3	26	2	1	3	0.3	0.3	0.1	1.0	0.1	0.4	0.3
1991–92	367	288	18	44	3	2	0	0.5	0.5	0.5	1.6	0.1	0.7	0.0
1992–93	396	333	6	38	2	1	N/A	0.5	0.6	0.1	1.3	0.0	0.3	N/A
1993–94	588	420	17	112	19	10	3	0.8	0.7	0.4	3.7	0.3	2.6	0.2

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions" surveys, unpublished data.

Note: Hispanic-serving institutions are those two-year and four-year institutions at which Hispanics constitute a minimum of 25 percent of the undergraduate enrollment. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group was not available. Therefore, the sum of the details may not equal the total.

N/A - Data not available.

Table 15

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1993, and 1994

	TOTAL					ALL MINORITIES				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
EDUCATION										
Total	87,788	107,781	107,600	22.6	-0.2	9,242	10,307	11,472	24.1	11.3
Men	21,146	23,233	24,450	15.6	5.2	2,571	2,479	2,692	4.7	8.6
Women	66,642	84,548	83,150	24.8	-1.7	6,671	7,828	8,780	31.6	12.2
BUSINESS										
Total	231,308	256,842	246,654	6.6	-4.0	26,965	41,606	44,152	63.7	6.1
Men	126,762	135,573	129,161	1.9	-4.7	12,569	18,134	19,056	51.6	5.1
Women	104,546	121,269	117,493	12.4	-3.1	14,396	23,472	25,096	74.3	6.9
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	90,795	135,703	133,680	47.2	-1.5	11,427	22,515	24,502	114.4	8.8
Men	50,789	73,589	72,006	41.8	-2.2	5,566	10,443	11,514	106.9	10.3
Women	40,006	62,114	61,674	54.2	-0.7	5,861	12,072	12,988	121.6	7.6
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	63,289	67,089	74,421	17.6	10.9	6,969	9,614	10,638	52.6	10.7
Men	9,534	11,347	13,062	37.0	15.1	1,140	1,787	1,934	69.6	8.2
Women	53,755	55,742	61,359	14.1	10.1	5,829	7,827	8,704	49.3	11.2
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	38,115	47,038	51,383	34.8	9.2	5,397	10,057	11,494	113.0	14.3
Men	19,905	22,842	25,050	25.8	9.7	2,598	4,602	5,179	99.3	12.5
Women	18,210	24,196	26,333	44.6	8.8	2,799	5,455	6,315	125.6	15.8
ENGINEERING[a]										
Total	94,560	77,877	78,043	-17.5	0.2	10,727	14,222	14,704	37.1	3.4
Men	82,095	66,670	66,421	-19.1	-0.4	8,765	11,290	11,633	32.7	3.0
Women	12,465	11,207	11,622	-6.8	3.7	1,962	2,932	3,071	56.5	4.7

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Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Race/Ethnicity Trends in Degrees Conferred by Institutions of Higher Education: 1984–85 through 1990–91*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, August 1993, and National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1996.

Note: Some institutions did not report racial/ethnic data for earned degrees. Data for some of these nonreporting institutions were imputed. Data represent programs, not organizational units, within institutions. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals.

[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Table 15 - Continued

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1993, and 1994

	HISPANIC					AFRICAN AMERICAN				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
EDUCATION										
Total	2,533	2,973	3,295	30.1	10.8	5,456	5,590	6,316	15.8	13.0
Men	597	657	746	25.0	13.5	1,569	1,380	1,477	-5.9	7.0
Women	1,936	2,316	2,549	31.7	10.1	3,887	4,210	4,839	24.5	14.9
BUSINESS										
Total	5,771	9,588	10,264	77.9	7.1	14,999	19,187	20,366	35.8	6.1
Men	2,988	4,711	4,997	67.2	6.1	6,442	7,644	7,966	23.7	4.2
Women	2,783	4,877	5,267	89.3	8.0	8,557	11,543	12,400	44.9	7.4
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	2,845	6,067	6,851	140.7	12.9	6,100	9,964	10,460	71.5	5.0
Men	1,557	2,992	3,453	121.8	15.4	2,778	4,277	4,543	63.5	6.2
Women	1,289	3,075	3,398	163.6	10.5	3,322	5,687	5,917	78.1	4.0
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	1,550	2,009	2,274	46.7	13.2	3,836	4,744	4,896	27.6	3.2
Men	309	457	469	51.8	2.6	484	688	674	39.3	-2.0
Women	1,241	1,552	1,805	45.4	16.3	3,352	4,056	4,222	26.0	4.1
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	1,241	1,855	2,137	72.2	15.2	2,045	2,784	3,022	47.8	8.5
Men	681	909	1,063	56.1	16.9	806	898	944	17.1	5.1
Women	560	946	1,074	91.8	13.5	1,239	1,886	2,078	67.7	10.2
ENGINEERING[a]										
Total	2,242	2,934	3,103	38.4	5.8	3,159	3,698	3,902	23.5	5.5
Men	1,935	2,437	2,587	33.7	6.2	2,435	2,684	2,774	13.9	3.4
Women	307	497	516	68.1	3.8	724	1,014	1,128	55.8	11.2

Continued on next page

[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Table 15 - Continued

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1993, and 1994

	WHITE					ASIAN AMERICAN[a]				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
EDUCATION										
Total	77,531	96,857	95,482	23.2	-1.4	977	1,100	1,122	45.7	2.0
Men	18,119	20,538	21,549	18.9	4.9	246	288	270	12.5	-6.3
Women	59,412	76,319	73,933	24.4	-3.1	731	812	852	60.8	4.9
BUSINESS										
Total	196,915	205,083	191,111	-2.9	-6.8	5,274	11,780	12,496	136.7	6.0
Men	109,130	111,478	103,573	-5.1	-7.1	2,644	5,249	5,619	112.5	7.0
Women	87,785	93,605	87,538	-0.3	-6.5	2,630	6,531	6,867	161.1	5.1
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	77,117	109,942	105,776	37.2	-3.8	2,034	5,712	6,408	215.0	12.2
Men	43,787	61,332	58,555	33.7	-4.5	1,002	2,802	3,133	212.7	11.8
Women	33,330	48,610	47,221	41.7	-2.9	1,032	2,910	3,275	217.3	12.5
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	55,501	56,464	62,756	13.1	11.1	1,310	2,513	3,070	134.4	22.2
Men	8,114	9,282	10,861	33.9	17.0	298	573	709	137.9	23.7
Women	47,387	47,182	51,895	9.5	10.0	1,012	1,940	2,361	133.3	21.7
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	31,807	35,766	38,736	21.8	8.3	1,950	5,203	6,083	211.9	16.9
Men	16,805	17,673	19,298	14.8	9.2	1,022	2,690	3,057	199.1	13.6
Women	15,002	18,093	19,438	29.6	7.4	928	2,513	3,026	226.1	20.4
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	76,438	58,732	58,321	-23.7	-0.7	5,013	7,307	7,378	47.2	1.0
Men	66,478	50,949	50,370	-24.2	-1.1	4,132	5,933	6,004	45.3	1.2
Women	9,960	7,783	7,951	-20.2	2.2	881	1,374	1,374	56.0	0.0

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[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

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Table 15 - Continued

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1993, and 1994

	AMERICAN INDIAN [a]					NONRESIDENT ALIEN				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
EDUCATION										
Total	483	644	739	53.0	14.8	1,015	617	646	-36.4	4.7
Men	165	154	199	20.6	29.2	456	216	209	-54.2	-3.2
Women	318	490	540	69.8	10.2	559	401	437	-21.8	9.0
BUSINESS										
Total	921	1,051	1,036	12.5	-1.4	7,426	10,153	11,391	53.4	12.2
Men	495	530	474	-4.2	-10.6	5,063	5,961	6,532	29.0	9.6
Women	426	521	562	31.9	7.9	2,365	4,192	4,859	105.5	15.9
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	447	772	783	75.2	1.4	2,251	3,246	3,402	51.1	4.8
Men	229	372	385	68.1	3.5	1,436	1,814	1,937	34.9	6.8
Women	218	400	398	82.6	-0.5	815	1,432	1,465	79.8	2.3
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	273	348	[illegible]	45.8	14.4	819	1,011	1,027	25.4	1.6
Men	49	69	82	67.3	18.8	280	278	267	-4.6	-4.0
Women	224	279	316	41.1	13.3	539	733	760	41.0	3.7
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	161	215	252	56.5	17.2	911	1,215	1,153	26.6	-5.1
Men	89	105	115	29.2	9.5	502	567	573	14.1	1.1
Women	72	110	137	90.3	24.5	409	648	580	41.8	-10.5
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	313	283	321	2.6	13.4	7,395	4,923	5,018	-32.1	1.9
Men	263	236	268	1.9	13.6	6,852	4,431	4,418	-35.5	-0.3
Women	50	47	53	6.0	12.8	543	492	600	10.5	22.0

[a] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Table 16

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1993, and 1994

	TOTAL					ALL MINORITIES				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
EDUCATION										
Total	98,380	96,028	98,938	0.6	3.0	9,600	11,756	12,939	34.8	10.1
Men	28,079	22,197	23,008	-18.1	3.7	2,370	2,869	3,063	29.2	6.8
Women	70,301	73,831	75,930	8.0	2.8	7,230	8,887	9,876	36.6	11.1
BUSINESS										
Total	57,541	89,615	93,437	62.4	4.3	6,117	11,288	12,705	107.7	12.6
Men	43,045	57,651	59,335	37.8	2.9	4,024	6,401	7,036	74.9	9.9
Women	14,496	31,964	34,102	135.3	6.7	2,093	4,887	5,669	170.9	16.0
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	11,917	13,471	14,561	22.2	8.1	1,065	1,535	1,748	64.1	13.9
Men	7,442	7,671	8,152	9.5	6.3	649	825	857	32.0	3.9
Women	4,475	5,800	6,409	43.2	10.5	416	710	891	114.2	25.5
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	16,515	25,718	28,025	69.7	9.0	1,652	2,923	3,350	102.8	14.6
Men	4,316	5,227	5,814	34.7	11.2	456	629	770	68.9	22.4
Women	12,199	20,491	22,211	82.1	8.4	1,196	2,294	2,580	115.7	12.5
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	17,130	20,634	21,833	27.5	5.8	2,577	3,719	4,134	60.4	11.2
Men	6,704	6,105	6,406	-4.4	4.9	958	1,101	1,115	16.4	1.3
Women	10,426	14,529	15,427	48.0	6.2	1,619	2,618	3,019	86.5	15.3
ENGINEERING [a]										
Total	16,358	28,726	29,754	81.9	3.6	2,322	3,777	4,070	75.3	7.8
Men	14,998	24,454	25,154	67.7	2.9	2,039	3,002	3,198	56.8	6.5
Women	1,360	4,272	4,600	238.2	7.7	283	775	872	208.1	12.5

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Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Race/Ethnicity Trends in Degrees Conferred by Institutions of Higher Education: 1984–85 through 1990–91* Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, August 1993, and National Center for Education Statistics, *Digest of Education Statistics* Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1996.

Note: Some institutions did not report racial/ethnic data for earned degrees. Data for some of these nonreporting institutions were imputed. Data represent programs, not organizational units, within institutions. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals.

[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Table 16 — Continued

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1993, and 1994

	HISPANIC					AFRICAN AMERICAN				
	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
EDUCATION										
Total	2,519	3,181	3,601	43.0	13.2	5,812	6,725	7,199	23.9	7.0
Men	668	835	918	37.4	9.9	1,325	1,523	1,574	18.8	3.3
Women	1,851	2,346	2,683	44.9	14.4	4,487	5,202	5,625	25.4	8.1
BUSINESS										
Total	1,175	2,241	2,568	118.6	14.6	2,601	4,474	5,213	100.4	16.5
Men	812	1,432	1,590	95.8	11.0	1,574	2,184	2,519	60.0	15.3
Women	363	809	978	169.4	20.9	1,027	2,290	2,694	162.3	17.6
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	272	396	459	68.8	15.9	422	645	737	74.6	14.3
Men	159	247	237	49.1	-4.0	234	330	336	43.6	1.8
Women	113	149	222	96.5	49.0	188	315	401	113.3	27.3
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	296	638	710	139.9	11.3	819	1,301	1,496	82.7	15.0
Men	89	158	200	124.7	26.6	179	217	232	29.6	6.9
Women	207	480	510	146.4	6.3	640	1,084	1,264	97.5	16.6
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	617	890	990	60.5	11.2	1,600	2,271	2,506	56.6	10.3
Men	221	294	300	35.7	2.0	592	633	612	3.4	-3.3
Women	396	596	690	74.2	15.8	1,008	1,638	1,894	87.9	15.6
ENGINEERING [a]										
Total	340	635	700	105.9	10.2	360	640	682	89.4	6.6
Men	299	527	572	91.3	8.5	300	459	493	64.3	7.4
Women	41	108	128	212.2	18.5	60	181	189	215.0	4.4

Continued on next page

[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies

Table 16 — Continued

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1993, and 1994

	WHITE					ASIAN AMERICAN[a]				
	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
EDUCATION										
Total	63,302	81,290	83,065	31.2	2.2	801	1,391	1,534	91.5	10.3
Men	17,047	18,341	19,031	11.6	3.8	238	369	405	70.2	9.8
Women	46,255	62,949	64,034	38.4	1.7	563	1,022	1,129	100.5	10.5
BUSINESS										
Total	54,663	66,535	67,669	23.8	1.7	2,070	4,304	4,625	123.4	7.5
Men	37,256	43,235	43,591	17.0	0.8	1,449	2,627	2,752	89.9	4.8
Women	17,407	23,300	24,078	38.3	3.3	621	1,677	1,873	201.6	11.7
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	7,333	9,474	10,247	39.7	8.2	328	422	481	46.6	14.0
Men	4,326	5,276	5,712	32.0	8.3	231	205	246	6.5	20.0
Women	3,007	4,198	4,535	50.8	8.0	97	217	235	142.3	8.3
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	14,565	21,328	23,175	59.1	8.7	476	864	1,007	111.6	16.6
Men	3,170	3,987	4,446	40.3	11.5	174	233	311	78.7	33.5
Women	11,395	17,341	18,729	64.4	8.0	302	631	696	130.5	10.3
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	13,849	16,130	16,891	22.0	4.7	271	466	495	82.7	6.2
Men	5,254	4,536	4,848	-7.7	6.9	112	143	161	43.8	12.6
Women	8,595	11,594	12,043	40.1	3.9	159	323	334	110.1	3.4
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	12,600	15,651	16,147	28.2	3.2	1,573	2,441	2,623	66.8	7.5
Men	11,012	13,270	13,651	24.0	2.9	1,395	1,970	2,082	49.2	5.7
Women	1,588	2,381	2,496	57.2	4.8	178	471	541	203.9	14.9

Continued on next pa

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Table 16 — Continued

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1985, 1993, and 1994

	AMERICAN INDIAN[a]					NONRESIDENT ALIEN				
	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94	1985 Total	1993 Total	1994 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1993–94
EDUCATION										
Total	468	459	605	29.3	31.8	2,919	2,982	2,934	0.5	-1.6
Men	139	142	166	19.4	16.9	1,427	987	914	-35.9	-7.4
Women	329	317	439	33.4	38.5	1,492	1,995	2,020	35.4	1.3
BUSINESS										
Total	271	269	299	10.3	11.2	5,816	11,792	13,063	124.6	10.8
Men	189	158	175	-7.4	10.8	4,604	8,015	8,708	89.1	8.6
Women	82	111	124	51.2	11.7	1,212	3,777	4,355	259.3	15.3
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	43	72	71	65.1	-1.4	1,825	2,462	2,566	40.6	4.2
Men	25	43	38	52.0	-11.6	1,323	1,570	1,583	19.7	0.8
Women	18	29	33	83.3	13.8	502	892	983	95.8	10.2
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	61	120	137	124.6	14.2	845	1,467	1,500	77.5	2.2
Men	14	21	27	92.9	28.6	426	611	598	40.4	-2.1
Women	47	99	110	134.0	11.1	419	856	902	115.3	5.4
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	89	92	143	60.7	55.4	704	785	808	14.8	2.9
Men	33	31	42	27.3	35.5	492	468	443	-10.0	-5.3
Women	56	61	101	80.4	65.6	212	317	365	72.2	15.1
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	49	61	65	32.7	6.6	5,813	9,296	9,537	64.1	2.6
Men	45	46	51	13.3	10.9	5,454	8,182	8,305	52.3	1.5
Women	4	15	14	250.0	-6.7	359	1,116	1,232	243.2	10.4

[a] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Table 17

Doctoral Degrees by U.S. Citizenship, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender, 1985 to 1995

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95
TOTAL DOCTORATES[a]	31,297	31,902	32,370	33,501	34,326	36,067	37,522	38,856	39,771	41,017	41,610	33.0	1.4
Men	20,553	20,594	20,938	21,682	21,813	22,962	23,652	24,436	24,658	25,211	25,277	23.0	0.3
Women	10,744	11,307	11,432	11,819	12,513	13,105	13,870	14,420	15,113	15,806	16,333	52.0	3.3
U.S. CITIZENS[b]													
All U.S. Citizens	23,370	23,086	22,984	23,291	23,400	24,905	25,561	25,977	26,420	27,129	27,803	18.1	1.7
Men	14,223	13,638	13,574	13,725	13,395	14,166	14,379	14,501	14,497	14,730	14,909	4.8	1.2
Women	9,147	9,448	9,410	9,566	10,005	10,739	11,182	11,476	11,923	12,399	12,894	38.8	2.4
White	20,772	20,640	20,468	20,787	20,894	22,172	22,419	22,875	23,237	23,805	23,811	14.6	0.0
Men	12,814	12,314	12,169	12,345	11,987	12,690	12,679	12,828	12,852	13,052	13,003	1.5	-0.4
Women	7,958	8,326	8,299	8,442	8,907	9,482	9,740	10,057	10,385	10,753	10,808	35.8	0.5
African American	912	830	771	818	821	900	1,004	968	1,108	1,095	1,267	41.1	17.5
Men	379	325	318	317	327	351	417	394	439	409	482	27.2	17.8
Women	533	505	453	501	494	549	587	574	669	686	805	51.0	17.3
Hispanic	561	572	617	595	582	721	731	778	834	884	916	63.3	3.6
Men	300	302	332	321	307	380	370	410	423	438	460	53.3	5.0
Women	261	270	285	274	275	341	361	368	411	446	456	74.7	2.2
Asian American[c]	517	533	543	614	633	641	789	846	889	949	1,138	120.1	19.9
Men	329	349	369	414	446	427	483	530	551	591	670	103.6	13.4
Women	188	184	174	200	187	214	306	316	338	358	468	148.9	30.7
American Indian[d]	96	99	115	94	94	97	130	149	120	142	148	54.2	4.2
Men	40	58	62	52	49	52	74	82	60	71	81	102.5	14.1
Women	56	41	53	42	45	45	56	67	60	71	67	19.6	-5.6
NON–U.S. CITIZENS													
Total	6,551	6,709	7,190	7,817	8,274	9,791	11,169	11,932	12,189	13,154	13,113	100.2	-0.3
Men	5,393	5,482	5,839	6,298	6,583	7,822	8,742	9,255	9,332	9,968	9,759	81.0	-2.1
Women	1,158	1,227	1,351	1,519	1,691	1,969	2,427	2,677	2,857	3,186	3,354	189.6	5.3

Source: National Research Council, Doctorate Records File, 1985 through 1995.

[a] Includes doctorates earned by persons with unknown citizenship status and unknown race/ethnicity.

[b] Includes doctorates earned by persons with unknown race/ethnicity.

[c] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[d] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 18

Doctoral Degrees by Field, U.S. Citizenship, and Race/Ethnicity, 1985, 1993, 1994, and 1995

TOTAL

	1985	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1994–95
Total Doctorates[a]	31,297	39,755	41,017	41,610	1.4
American Indian	96	121	145	148	2.1
Asian	3,646	8,657	9,366	9,696	3.5
Black	1,439	1,610	1,677	1,798	7.2
Hispanic	1,000	1,426	1,534	1,530	-0.3
White	22,889	26,413	27,095	26,993	-0.4
U.S. Citizens[b]	23,370	26,408	27,129	27,603	1.7
American Indian[c]	96	120	142	148	4.2
Asian American[d]	517	889	949	1,138	19.9
African American	912	1,107	1,095	1,287	17.5
Hispanic	561	830	884	916	3.6
White	20,772	23,230	23,805	23,811	0.0

PHYSICAL SCIENCES

	1985	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1994–95
Total Doctorates[a]	4,531	6,496	6,822	6,806	-0.2
American Indian	4	11	11	11	0.0
Asian	807	2,103	2,304	2,293	-0.5
Black	66	89	114	102	-10.5
Hispanic	128	202	201	177	-11.9
White	3,185	3,799	3,986	3,968	-0.5
U.S. Citizens[b]	3,050	3,475	3,635	3,652	0.5
American Indian[c]	4	11	10	11	10.0
Asian American[d]	100	182	180	223	23.9
African American	30	41	52	52	0.0
Hispanic	42	89	99	86	-13.1
White	2,773	3,109	3,260	3,222	-1.2

ENGINEERING

	1984	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1994–95
Total Doctorates[a]	3,166	5,696	5,822	6,007	3.2
American Indian	1	2	7	10	42.9
Asian	1,156	2,599	2,709	2,833	4.6
Black	72	82	86	102	15.9
Hispanic	86	142	159	149	-6.3
White	1,549	2,590	2,620	2,634	0.5
U.S. Citizens[b]	1,279	2,225	2,215	2,382	7.5
American Indian[c]	1	2	6	10	66.7
Asian American[d]	90	216	202	255	26.2
African American	19	41	44	54	22.7
Hispanic	16	56	49	61	24.5
White	1,097	1,888	1,886	1,952	3.5

LIFE SCIENCES

	1985	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1994–95
Total Doctorates[a]	5,780	7,397	7,736	7,913	2.3
American Indian	19	15	24	27	12.5
Asian	619	1,774	1,973	2,141	8.5
Black	189	251	286	290	1.4
Hispanic	202	297	332	332	0.0
White	4,409	4,813	4,916	4,882	-0.7
U.S. Citizens[b]	4,465	4,827	4,950	4,996	0.9
American Indian[c]	19	14	24	27	12.5
Asian American[d]	129	219	246	266	8.1
African American	70	122	116	155	33.6
Hispanic	75	126	147	145	-1.4
White	4,082	4,301	4,367	4,351	-0.4

SOCIAL SCIENCES

	1985	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1994–95
Total Doctorates[a]	5,765	6,545	6,614	6,623	0.1
American Indian	18	19	27	29	7.4
Asian	400	828	915	980	7.1
Black	277	300	317	328	3.5
Hispanic	174	284	263	290	10.3
White	4,414	4,862	4,867	4,773	-1.9
U.S. Citizens[b]	4,579	4,934	4,992	5,034	0.8
American Indian[c]	18	19	27	29	7.4
Asian American[d]	62	104	132	168	27.3
African American	174	205	200	242	21.0
Hispanic	121	182	176	214	21.6
White	4,099	4,396	4,405	4,339	-1.5

HUMANITIES

	1984	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1994–95
Total Doctorates[a]	3,429	4,481	4,745	5,061	6.7
American Indian	8	13	24	19	-20.8
Asian	153	380	426	454	6.6
Black	102	152	144	159	10.4
Hispanic	136	200	245	240	-2.0
White	2,803	3,552	3,779	4,017	6.3
U.S. Citizens[b]	2,859	3,510	3,714	3,979	7.1
American Indian[c]	8	13	23	19	-17.4
Asian American[d]	44	60	68	91	33.8
African American	67	95	102	106	3.9
Hispanic	97	130	138	130	-5.8
White	2,579	3,171	3,349	3,578	6.8

EDUCATION

	1985	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1994–95
Total Doctorates[a]	6,733	6,647	6,695	6,546	-2.2
American Indian	40	50	36	49	11.1
Asian	285	454	485	456	-6.0
Black	612	607	585	666	13.8
Hispanic	238	240	271	277	2.2
White	5,178	5,097	5,178	4,919	-5.0
U.S. Citizens[b]	5,776	5,746	5,8451	5,680	-2.9
American Indian[c]	40	50	36	40	11.1
Asian American[d]	69	82	80	80	0.0
African American	477	512	484	566	16.9
Hispanic	181	211	226	232	2.7
White	4,935	4,861	4,980	4,729	-5.0

PROFESSIONAL-OTHER

	1985	1993	1994	1995	Percent Change 1994–95
Total Doctorates[a]	1,893	2,492	2,583	2,654	2.7
American Indian	6	10	16	12	-25.0
Asian	224	515	554	539	-2.7
Black	121	125	143	151	5.6
Hispanic	36	64	63	65	3.2
White	1,351	1,673	1,749	1,800	2.9
U.S. Citizens[b]	1,362	1,660	1,772	1,880	6.1
American Indian[c]	6	10	16	12	-25.0
Asian American[d]	23	26	41	55	34.1
African American	75	90	97	112	15.5
Hispanic	29	40	49	48	-2.0
White	1,207	1,476	1,558	1,640	5.3

Source: National Research Council, Doctorate Records File, various years.

[a] Total doctorates figure includes persons who did not report their citizenship at time of doctorate and those who did not report their racial/ethnic background.

[b] Includes persons who did not report their racial/ethnic background.

[c] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[d] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

Table 19

NCAA Division I Graduation Rates by Type of Institution, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender, 1990 to 1995

	1990[a] (percent)	1991[b] (percent)	1992[c] (percent)	1993[d] (percent)	1994[e] (percent)	1995[f] (percent)	Percent Change 1990–95
ALL INSTITUTIONS							
Total	53	54	55	56	57	57	4
African American	31	33	34	37	38	40	9
American Indian[g]	29	31	32	36	37	37	8
Hispanic	40	41	44	45	45	46	6
Asian American[h]	62	61	65	66	65	65	3
White	56	56	58	59	59	59	3
WOMEN							
Total	54	55	57	58	58	59	5
African American	34	36	36	41	41	43	9
American Indian[g]	31	33	32	38	40	38	7
Hispanic	42	44	46	48	48	49	7
Asian American[h]	64	64	67	70	67	69	5
White	57	58	60	61	61	61	4
MEN							
Total	51	52	54	54	55	55	4
African American	28	30	30	33	34	35	7
American Indian[g]	28	28	32	33	34	37	9
Hispanic	38	39	41	42	42	43	5
Asian American[h]	60	58	63	63	62	62	2
White	54	55	56	57	57	57	3
PUBLIC							
Total	49	50	52	53	53	53	4
African American	28	30	31	34	36	37	9
American Indian[g]	27	28	30	33	34	35	8
Hispanic	35	36	39	41	41	42	7
Asian American[h]	58	57	62	63	60	61	3
White	52	53	54	55	56	56	4
INDEPENDENT							
Total	67	69	70	71	70	69	2
African American	49	51	52	56	51	49	0
American Indian[g]	48	52	45	57	58	56	8
Hispanic	64	65	64	66	66	65	1
Asian American[h]	74	77	77	80	78	77	3
White	70	71	72	73	72	71	1

Source: The National Collegiate Athletic Association, Division I Graduation Report, 1991-92, 1992-93, and 1993 through 1996.

[a] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 297 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1984–85 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1990.

[b] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 298 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1985–86 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1991.

[c] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 298 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1986–87 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1992.

[d] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 301 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1987–88 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1993.

[e] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 302 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1988–89 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1994.

[f] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 305 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1989–90 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1995.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[h] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

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Table 20

Full-Time Faculty in Higher Education by Race/Ethnicity and Gender for 1983, 1991, and 1993

	1983 Total	Percent	1991 Total	Percent	1993 Total	Percent	Percent Change 1983–93	Percent Change 1991–93
TOTAL	485,739	100.0	520,551	100.0	533,770	100.0	9.9	2.5
Men	356,579	73.4	355,257	68.2	354,302	66.4	-0.6	-0.3
Women	129,160	26.6	165,294	31.8	179,468	33.6	39.0	8.6
White (non-Hispanic)	440,505	90.7	456,316	87.7	468,770	87.8	6.4	2.7
Men	326,171	91.5	313,267	88.2	313,278	88.4	-4.0	0.0
Women	114,334	88.5	143,049	86.5	155,492	86.6	36.0	8.7
TOTAL MINORITY	45,234	9.3	64,235	12.3	65,000	12.2	43.7	1.2
Men	30,408	8.5	41,990	11.8	41,024	11.6	34.9	-2.3
Women	14,826	11.5	22,245	13.5	23,976	13.4	61.7	7.8
African American (non-Hispanic)	19,571	4.0	24,611	4.7	25,658	4.8	31.1	4.3
Men	10,541	3.0	13,107	3.7	13,385	3.8	27.0	2.1
Women	9,030	7.0	11,504	7.0	12,273	6.8	35.9	6.7
Hispanic	7,456	1.5	11,424	2.2	12,076	2.3	62.0	5.7
Men	5,240	1.5	7,347	2.1	7,459	2.1	42.3	1.5
Women	2,216	1.7	4,077	2.5	4,617	2.6	108.3	13.2
Asian American[a]	16,899	3.5	26,545	5.1	25,269	4.7	49.5	-4.8
Men	13,677	3.8	20,520	5.8	18,943	5.3	38.5	-7.7
Women	3,222	2.5	6,025	3.6	6,326	3.5	96.3	5.0
American Indian[b]	1,308	0.3	1,655	0.3	1,997	0.4	52.7	20.7
Men	950	0.3	1,016	0.3	1,237	0.3	30.2	21.8
Women	358	0.3	639	0.4	760	0.4	112.3	18.9

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1983 and 1991. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1993.

Note: Details may not add to totals because of rounding. Includes full-time faculty who are in nontenured earning positions, tenured faculty, and faculty who are nontenured but in positions that lead to consideration for tenure. Employment counts are based on the following number of higher education institutions each year: 3,011 in 1983, 3,285 in 1991, and 3,385 in 1993. Data for 1983 and 1991 are based on reported counts and are not imputed for nonreporting institutions, while 1993 data were imputed for nonreporting institutions. Figures shown here may not agree with tables showing tenure data because some respondents provided total faculty counts by race but did not further categorize by tenure status.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 21

Tenure Rates of Tenure-Track Faculty by Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1983, 1991, and 1993

(Percentages with tenure)

	1983			1991			1993		
	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN
Total	71	75	60	70	75	58	71	76	60
White (non-Hispanic)	72	76	60	72	76	59	73	78	61
Total Minority	63	65	59	59	61	54	62	66	56
African American (non-Hispanic)	62	65	58	58	60	56	61	63	58
Hispanic	67	69	62	61	64	54	63	66	57
Asian American[a]	61	62	55	58	60	49	64	67	52
American Indian[b]	65	66	61	61	68	49	63	72	49

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1983 and 1993. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "EEO-6 Higher Education Staff Information" surveys, 1993.

Note: Details may not add to totals due to rounding. Employment counts are based on the following number of higher education institutions for each year: 3,011 in 1983, 3,285 in 1991, and 3,385 in 1993. Data for 1983 and 1991 are based on reported counts and are not imputed for nonreporting institutions, while 1993 data were imputed for nonreporting institutions. These tenure rates only include full-time faculty that are on tenure track, and are therefore higher than the rates shown in Table 23, which include all full-time undergraduate faculty regardless of tenure-track status.

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Table 22

Full-Time Undergraduate Faculty by Academic Rank, 1995–96
(percent)

ALL	FULL PROFESSOR	ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR	ASSISTANT PROFESSOR	LECTURER	INSTRUCTOR	OTHER
All	33.3	25.7	24.1	2.5	13.0	1.3
White	34.6	26.0	23.0	2.6	12.5	1.3
Total Minority	23.0	24.0	32.1	1.9	17.5	1.6
African American	17.8	30.2	32.1	1.9	15.6	2.4
Asian	31.1	24.8	34.3	1.2	8.2	0.4
American Indian	24.6	21.9	26.1	1.5	23.6	2.2
All Hispanics	17.3	18.4	32.1	2.9	27.4	1.9
Chicano	14.7	13.7	27.4	2.0	40.6	1.7
Puerto Rican	10.9	19.1	42.7	4.7	21.6	0.9
Other Latino	22.5	24.1	34.9	3.6	12.3	2.5
MEN						
All	41.3	26.3	20.5	1.7	9.2	0.9
White	42.9	26.4	19.3	1.6	8.7	0.9
Total Minority	28.1	25.6	29.6	1.2	13.9	1.5
African American	16.9	32.8	31.7	1.4	14.2	2.9
Asian	36.0	26.3	31.3	0.6	5.4	0.3
American Indian	32.8	23.3	24.7	1.5	15.5	2.2
All Hispanics	23.7	20.3	27.5	1.8	25.5	1.2
Chicano	20.4	15.9	22.5	1.1	39.0	1.1
Puerto Rican	14.7	18.3	41.3	6.5	19.2	0.0
Other Latino	30.5	26.5	30.3	1.5	9.7	1.6
WOMEN						
All	17.5	24.5	31.3	4.0	20.6	2.1
White	17.9	25.1	30.5	4.1	20.2	2.1
Total Minority	14.4	21.0	36.2	3.0	23.5	1.9
African American	19.0	27.0	32.6	2.3	17.3	1.7
Asian	18.0	20.9	42.3	2.6	15.6	0.7
American Indian	11.5	19.6	28.4	1.6	36.7	2.3
All Hispanics	8.5	15.8	38.4	4.4	30.0	2.9
Chicano	6.7	10.5	34.4	3.1	42.6	2.5
Puerto Rican	7.2	19.9	44.1	3.0	24.3	1.5
Other Latino	11.3	20.8	41.4	6.6	16.0	3.9

Source: Higher Education Research Institute. 1989–90 HERI Faculty Survey. Astin H. S. et al. *Race and Ethnicity in the American Professoriate, 1995–96*. Los Angeles: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA (forthcoming 1997).

Table 23

Tenure Rates for Full–Time Undergraduate Faculty 1989–90 and 1995–96

	ALL	MEN	WOMEN
TENURED 1989–90			
White	67.8	73.8	52.7
Total Minority	59.4	62.7	53.5
African American	53.8	56.5	51.0
Hispanic	63.1	67.6	55.7
Asian American	64.9	65.3	63.7
TENURED 1995–96			
All	59.3	66.0	46.5
White	60.7	67.6	47.3
Total Minority	47.5	51.3	41.4
African American	42.9	40.0	46.2
All Hispanics	44.4	49.5	37.6
Chicano	45.0	50.0	38.2
Puerto Rican	33.9	29.5	38.3
Other Latino	47.0	54.6	36.5
Asian American	52.6	57.2	40.5
American Indian	51.1	57.7	40.9

Source: Higher Education Research Institute, 1989–90 HERI Faculty Survey. Astin, H. S., et al. *Race and Ethnicity in the American Professoriate, 1995–96*. Los Angeles: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA (forthcoming).

Note: These tenure rates include all full-time faculty who teach at least one undergraduate course. Both tenure-track and non–tenure track faculty are included. Therefore, these rates are lower than the tenure rates shown in Table 21.

Table 24

Current Appointments for Full-Time Undergraduate Faculty by Department, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender, 1995–96

All Faculty	All	White	Total Minority	African American	American Indian	Asian American	Total Hispanic	Chicano	Puerto Rican	Other Latino
Agriculture/Forestry	1.3	1.4	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.2	1.5	1.4
Biological Sciences	5.8	6.0	4.8	5.0	3.8	5.6	4.3	4.3	5.1	4.2
Business	7.7	7.6	7.8	7.2	7.7	10.0	5.9	6.7	3.7	5.6
Education	7.7	7.7	7.6	10.7	11.4	3.7	7.5	8.4	10.9	5.1
Engineering	4.4	4.3	5.7	3.1	3.2	11.3	2.7	1.0	3.0	4.8
English	8.0	7.8	8.5	12.0	11.5	3.8	9.2	14.2	7.7	3.4
Fine Arts	9.0	9.2	6.9	7.3	12.6	5.1	5.9	5.7	4.7	6.5
Health Related	7.1	7.3	5.8	7.8	4.5	4.3	6.3	9.6	2.2	3.4
History/Political Science	5.8	5.8	5.4	7.6	3.1	3.8	6.4	7.5	4.9	5.5
Humanities	8.1	7.9	9.8	4.2	5.2	6.4	21.0	10.3	28.2	32.4
Mathematics/Statistics	6.1	5.9	7.2	3.9	5.9	12.8	4.3	2.9	4.1	6.3
Physical Sciences	7.4	7.4	6.3	1.9	3.4	12.6	4.4	3.5	5.1	5.4
Social Sciences	11.2	11.0	12.1	16.5	12.8	8.6	11.7	11.0	14.9	11.5
Other Technical	3.9	3.9	3.6	2.3	1.7	6.2	2.6	4.1	1.4	1.1
Other Non-Technical	6.6	6.4	7.9	9.9	12.7	5.1	7.1	10.9	2.8	3.6
MEN										
Agriculture/Forestry	1.8	1.9	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.3	0.0	2.3
Biological Sciences	6.6	6.8	5.6	5.6	4.4	6.7	4.7	5.5	8.1	2.8
Business	8.2	8.2	8.9	9.1	7.5	11.6	5.3	4.2	2.6	7.5
Education	6.1	6.1	6.3	11.4	10.5	1.4	6.9	7.8	7.9	5.5
Engineering	6.2	6.0	8.6	5.2	3.4	15.1	4.6	1.6	6.2	8.2
English	6.6	6.7	5.0	4.1	11.8	2.9	5.4	6.1	10.8	3.0
Fine Arts	9.4	9.6	7.6	11.2	12.5	3.6	8.1	8.4	5.8	8.4
Health Related	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.7	0.2	2.6	3.9	5.6	1.9	2.3
History/Political Science	7.0	6.8	6.7	10.2	4.0	4.2	8.6	10.7	6.5	6.4
Humanities	7.8	7.9	7.2	4.0	5.8	3.8	15.6	9.8	12.0	24.1
Mathematics/Statistics	6.5	6.3	8.2	5.9	5.8	13.9	3.2	1.5	2.7	5.5
Physical Sciences	9.6	9.7	8.2	3.3	5.1	13.8	5.7	4.2	9.5	6.5
Social Sciences	11.4	11.2	13.0	15.8	14.9	9.3	15.0	12.9	23.2	15.5
Other Technical	4.6	4.6	4.3	1.5	2.2	6.9	3.9	6.4	2.8	0.9
Other Non-Technical	5.9	5.7	7.1	9.8	11.0	3.5	8.1	15.0	0.0	1.2
WOMEN										
Agriculture/Forestry	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.0	0.8	0.4	0.0	2.9	0.0
Biological Sciences	4.2	4.4	3.5	4.3	2.9	2.5	3.8	2.5	2.2	6.1
Business	6.8	6.9	6.1	5.1	8.0	5.7	6.7	10.3	4.7	3.1
Education	10.8	11.1	9.7	9.8	12.8	9.7	8.2	9.2	13.8	4.7
Engineering	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.6	3.0	1.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0
English	10.7	10.1	14.2	21.0	10.9	6.4	14.6	26.4	4.7	3.9
Fine Arts	8.1	8.3	5.6	2.8	12.8	9.1	2.7	1.7	3.6	3.7
Health Related	16.6	17.3	11.3	14.8	11.1	8.9	9.6	15.6	2.5	4.6
History/Political Science	3.5	3.6	3.3	4.5	1.7	2.6	3.2	2.5	3.4	4.1
Humanities	8.8	7.9	13.9	4.3	4.3	13.2	28.5	11.0	43.6	44.2
Mathematics/Statistics	5.2	5.2	5.5	1.6	6.0	10.1	5.9	4.9	5.3	7.4
Physical Sciences	2.9	2.8	3.2	0.3	0.6	9.3	2.7	2.3	0.9	3.9
Social Sciences	10.8	10.8	10.6	17.3	9.7	6.8	7.1	8.1	7.0	5.8
Other Technical	2.5	2.5	2.4	3.3	1.0	4.4	0.8	0.6	0.0	1.3
Other Non-Technical	7.9	7.8	9.2	10.0	15.2	9.4	5.7	4.7	5.4	7.1

Source: Higher Education Research Institute. 1989–90 HERI Faculty Survey. Astin, H. S. et al. *Race and Ethnicity in the American Professoriate, 1995–96*. Los Angeles: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA (forthcoming).

Table 25

College and University Chief Executive Officers by Institutional Type, Race/Ethnicity and Gender, 1996

	ALL INSTITUTIONS	4-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	2-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
TOTAL CEOs	2,939	1,865	1,074
WHITE CEOs			
Female	384	248	136
Male	1,791	1,160	631
TOTAL	2,175	1,408	767
AFRICAN AMERICAN CEOs			
Female	45	22	23
Male	147	109	38
TOTAL	192	131	61
HISPANIC CEOs[a]			
Female	31	14	17
Male	68	34	34
TOTAL	99	48	51
AMERICAN INDIAN CEOs			
Female	9	1	8
Male	19	7	12
TOTAL	28	8	20
ASIAN CEOs			
Female	2	0	2
Male	18	13	5
TOTAL	20	13	7
UNKNOWN ETHNICITY CEOs			
Female	17	7	10
Male	408	250	158
TOTAL	425	257	168

Source: American Council on Education Corporate Database. Numbers compiled February1996.

Note: CEO of a regionally accredited, degree-granting institution in the U.S. and outlying areas (e.g., Puerto Rico). The term CEO is defined within the American Council on Education's Corporate Database as the president, Chancellor, Superintendent, Executive Director, Campus Dean, etc., including interim/acting CEOs heading regionally accredited institutions, branches, and affiliates.

[a]This total includes the CEOs that head 31 Puerto Rican institutions. Consequently there are 68 Hispanic CEOs heading two- and four-year regionally accredited institions on the mainland.

Table 26

Comparative Population Estimates July 1996

Population	Total (in thousands)	Percent[a] of Total	Median Age (in years)	Percent Women
All Races	265.185	100.0	34.6	51.1
White	194.251	73.3	37.0	50.9
Asian Pacific American	9.638	3.6	30.5	51.7
African American	33.618	12.7	29.3	49.4
Hispanic	27.937	10.5	26.3	49.4
American Indian	2.275	0.9	26.9	50.5

Source U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *United States Population Estimates by Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin, with Median Age*, 1996.

[a] Total sums to more than 100 because of rounding.

Table 27

APA Population by Selected Ethnic Group and Growth Rates: 1970–1990

	Population			Percent Change	
	1970	1980	1990	1970–1980	1980–1990
Total APA	1.356.638	3.726.440	7.273.662	174.7	95.2
Chinese	431.583	812.178	1.645.472	88.2	102.6
Filipino	336.731	781.894	1.406.770	132.2	79.9
Japanese	588.324	716.331	847.562	21.8	18.3
Asian Indian	N/A	387.223	815.447	N/A	110.6
Korean	69.510	357.393	798.849	414.2	123.5
Vietnamese	N/A	245.025	614.547	N/A	150.8
Hawaiian	N/A	172.346	211.014	N/A	22.4
Other APA	N/A	254.054	934.001	N/A	267.6

Source U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Statistical Brief, *The Nation's Asian and Pacific Islander Population–1994*, SB/95-24, November 1995.

N/A–Data Not Available

Table 28

Asian and Pacific Americans: Language Spoken at Home and Ability to Speak English Persons 5 Years Old and Over: 1990 (by percentage)

	Speak Language Other than English	Do Not Speak English "Very Well"	Live in Linguistically Isolated Households
All Americans	13.8	6.0	3.5
Total APA Population	73.3	38.4	24.2
APAs Age 5–17	60.6	25.7	24.8
Asian Indian	77.7	23.5	11.2
Cambodian	96.0	70.0	54.6
Chinese	84.0	50.5	34.8
Filipino	68.4	24.2	9.7
Hawaiian	10.0	2.7	1.0
Hmong	97.4	67.0	59.8
Japanese	44.0	25.2	14.8
Korean	82.2	51.6	35.1
Laotian	96.8	67.8	51.5
Samoan	66.4	21.8	7.2
Thai	80.0	46.2	26.6
Vietnamese	93.8	60.8	42.1
Other Pacific Islander	74.6	33.0	15.2

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *1990 Census of Population, Social and Economic Characteristics* (CP–2–1), 1993.

Note: Linguistic isolation refers to persons in households in which no one 14 years old or over speaks only English and no one who speaks a language other than English speaks English "very well."

Table 29

Comparative Income Characteristics: 1989

Income Characteristics	APA	U.S. Population	White Non-Hispanic	African American	American Hispanics	Indian
Median Family Income	$41,251	$35,225	$37,628	$22,429	$25,064	$21,750
Median Family Income, Inside Urban only	$41,285	$38,233	$42,246	$24,302	$25,993	$27,008
Per Capita Income	$13,638	$14,420	$16,074	$8,859	$8,400	$8,328
Per Capita Income, Inside Urban Only	$13,772	$15,707	$18,274	$9,501	$8,718	$10,702
Below Poverty, Individual	14.1%	13.1%	9.2%	29.5%	25.3%	30.9%
Below Poverty, Inside Urban Only, Individual	14.1%	12.6%	7.6%	27.5%	24.1%	23.3%
Below Poverty, Families	11.6%	10.0%	7.0%	26.3%	22.3%	27.0%
Below Poverty, Inside Urban Only, Families	11.6%	9.5%	5.5%	24.6%	21.4%	19.8%
Families with Three or More Wage Earners	19.8%	13.4%	13.0%	13.4%	17.4%	12.0%

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *1990 Census of Population, Social and Economic Characteristics* (CP–2–1), 1993.

Table 30

Comparison of Education Attainment in the U.S. by Race and Region (West Only): 1994

Persons 25 Years Old and Over

(by percentage)

United States	Total Population	Asian and Pacific Americans	Whites
Eighth grade or less	8.8	9.8	6.2
Ninth Grade to High School Graduate	44.6	30.0	44.3
Some College or Associate Degree	24.3	19.1	25.2
Bachelor's Degree orMore	22.2	41.2	24.3
High School Graduate or More	80.9	84.8	84.9
West Only			
Eighth Grade or Less	9.1	10.8	3.1
Ninth Grade to High School Graduate	37.3	32.6	36.5
Some College or Associate Degree	29.4	21.9	32.3
Bachelor's Degree or More	24.2	34.7	28.1
High School Graduate or More	82.6	83.9	90.3

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. 1994 Current Population Survey. *The Asian and Pacific Islander Population in the United States*. March 1994.

Table 31

At-Risk APA Groups—Education: 25 Years Old and Older

(by percentage)

	Total Population	All APAs	Vietnamese	Cambodian	Hmong	Laotian	Hawaiian	Samoan	Guamanian	Other Pacific Islander
Less than Fifth Grade	2.7	6.9	11.4	40.7	54.9	33.9	1.3	4.3	4.7	6.0
High School or More	75.0	77.5	61.2	34.9	31.1	40.0	79.0	70.6	72.3	69.4
Some College	45.2	59.0	43.7	23.1	20.6	20.9	40.9	34.8	41.0	41.3
Bachelor's Degree or More	20.3	36.6	17.4	5.7	4.9	5.4	11.9	8.0	10.0	9.5

Source U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *1990 Census of Population. Social and Economic Characteristics* (CP-2-1). 1993.

Table 32

Median Annual Earnings of Full-Time Workers 25 Years Old and Over by Educational Attainment and Family Poverty Rate by Educational Attainment: 1993
(by percentage)

	UNITED STATES	APA	WHITE
Median Income (in dollars)			
Not High School Graduate	17,020	14,459	19,022
High School Graduate	22,719	21,076	24,124
Some College or Associate Degree	27,003	29,481	27,932
Bachelor's Degree or more	40,240	36,844	41,094
Family Poverty Rate (as a percent)			
Not a High School Graduate	27.5	41.0	17.8
High School Graduate	12.7	13.4	8.4
Bachelor's Degree or More	2.4	7.0	1.9

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1994 Current Population Survey, *The Asian and Pacific Islander Population in the United States*, March 1994.

Table 33

Percent of Persons Ages 18 to 24 Years Old Enrolled in College by Race and Sex: 1990
(by percentage)

	APA	United States	White	Black	Hispanic	American Indian
Total	55.1	34.4	36.8	27.1	22.9	21.6
Male	56.0	32.7	35.7	23.3	20.4	20.2
Female	54.1	36.0	37.9	30.8	25.7	23.2

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *1990 Census of Population, Social and Economic Characteristics* (CP-2-1), 1993.

Table 34

Number of Bachelor's Degrees Earned by APAs by Field and Percent of Bachelor's Degrees Earned by APA Women by Field: 1994

	APA Men	APA Women	APA Total	APA Women (percent)
All Fields	26,938	28,722	55,660	51.6
Health	709	2,361	3,070	76.9
Education	270	852	1,122	76.0
Humanities	1,845	3,339	5,184	64.4
Arts	826	1,455	2,281	63.8
Social Science	3,962	5,287	9,249	57.2
Business	5,619	6,867	12,486	55.0
Sciences	4,258	3,895	8,153	47.8
Engineering/Computer Science	7,515	2,164	9,678	22.4
Other	1,934	2,502	4,436	56.4

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions" survey, 1996

Table 35

Number of APA Master's Degrees Earned by Field and Percent of Master's Degrees Earned by APA Women by Field: 1994

	APA Men	APA Women	APA Total	APA Women (percent)
All Fields	8,225	7,042	15,267	46.1
Health	311	696	1,007	69.1
Education	405	1,129	1,534	73.6
Humanities	328	455	773	57.6
Arts	139	249	388	64.2
Social Science	323	438	761	57.6
Business	2,752	1,873	4,625	40.1
Sciences	489	409	878	45.6
Engineering/Computer Science	2,929	1,011	3,940	25.7
Other	549	792	1,341	59.0

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions" survey, 1996

Table 36

Number of APA Full-Time Faculty by Rank and Sex and Percent of APA Women by Rank: 1993

	All Faculty Ranks	Full Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor/ Lecturer	Other
All APAs	25,269	7,033	5,471	7,586	2,700	2,479
Males	18,943	6,245	4,367	5,277	1,390	1,664
Females	6,326	788	1,104	2,309	1,310	815
Percentage of Female APAs	25.0	11.2	20.2	30.4	48.5	32.9

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" Survey, 1994

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